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THE RELATION OF SPEECH TO PHILOLOGY AND LINGUISTICS*

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IN discussing the relation of speech to philology and linguistics it seems desirable first to recall briefly some definitions or explanations of these terms. Certainly in this presence I do not need particularly to substantiate the statement that there is more than one concept of philology to be found in the literature, and that the statements of the distinction between philology and linguistics are not always in complete agreement. So when I asked myself, as a first step in the preparation of this paper, just what is philology, and just what is linguistics, and then proceeded to find authoritative answers, I found, as you know, many varying answers.

Also in making this statement in regard to the function of the field of speech in American universities I cannot hope to make a statement which will be agreed to in all its details by all of the teachers of speech in America. Of course, I can with complete accuracy and assurance say only that I am expressing my own opinion. I believe, however, that in the conception of the field of speech which I shall here set forth I am giving you what is essentially the actuating philosophy of most, if not all, of the larger departments of speech in the larger universities of America.

In my search for definitions of philology and linguistics, I

* Read at the annual meeting of the American Philological Association, 1927.

found one in particular which appealed to me. Professor Albert S. Cook in his address on "The Province of English Philology," given before the Modern Language Association of America in 1897, said, "The function of the Philologist, then, is the endeavor to relive the life of the past; to enter by the imagination into the spiritual experiences of all the historic protagonists of civilization in a given period and area of culture; to think the thoughts, to feel the emotions, to partake the aspirations, recorded in literature, to become one with humanity in the struggles of a given nation or race to perceive and attain the ideal of existence; and then to judge rightly these various disclosures of the human spirit, and to reveal to the world their true significance and relative importance." Professor Cook further took the ground that philology must not be considered as identical with linguistics, nor must linguistics be taken as a totally independent branch of learning, but places it as a subdivision of the field that he has mapped out for philology.

This statement of Professor Cook's may not be entirely satisfactory to all of you, but it at least gives us a respectable point of departure, and is somewhat more useful, I believe, in our discussion to-day than such definitions of philology as "the science of antiquity" or "the biography of a nation." Treated broadly enough philology, of course, covers all of linguistics, all of the study of literature, all of speech, as well as a great deal else in history, anthropology, and other fields. I shall assume, however, as a starting point: that philology covers the whole broad field of historical study in literature, its particular objective being to judge rightly the various disclosures of the human spirit in literature, and to reveal to the world their true significance and relative importance; that linguistics is the particular study of language processes including the origin and development of language habits in different races or communities. And what is speech? What do teachers of speech in America mean by this term? To us speech is the oral use of language, and also some other muscle movements, in human behavior for the purpose of direct and immediate communication.

What then is the relation of the field of speech to philology and linguistics? All evidently have to do largely with language in one form or another, philology principally with the language as

conventionalized word symbols, and the records and literature preserved in manuscripts through the medium of these symbols, linguistics with the study of the development and standardization, or the conventionalization, of both the sounds for which the word symbols stand and the word symbols themselves, and speech with the oral use of language, plus certain bodily actions which are not always language, as purposeful activities in direct human communication. By the bodily actions which are not always language I mean significant, meaningful activities, which make their impression through the eye rather than through the ear.

Professor Meader in his article on general linguistics in the *Encyclopedia Americana* says that a word has three material forms: the moving muscle, the vibrating air, and the written or printed sign. I take it that philology is principally concerned with the word in the third of these material forms which Professor Meader has listed; namely, the written or printed sign. And linguistics is interested in a study of how and why the muscle movements and the vibrating air came in each particular instance to have the meanings, or perhaps more accurately, to be capable of stirring up the meanings, which is their function in human intercourse. And speech is concerned with the moving muscle and the vibrating air not simply as the elements of a field of knowledge, not as things to be studied as ends in themselves, but as basic elements in man's most important means of living with other men. Speech in this sense is applied linguistics—an art of which linguistics is one of the basic sciences.

It is our position that the field of speech deals with that part of human behavior through which one human being communicates with one or more other human beings directly, through the use only of powers and agencies found in the human body and in the vibrating medium, air. Speech is the field of human communication without the aid of papers and pencils, typewriters, printing presses, chisels, brushes, or musical instruments. Speech is not essentially and primarily concerned with words as printed or written symbols; and so, of course, the printed manuscript of a so-called speech is not really the speech itself, only the plan of the speech. It may be illuminating to say that the manuscript is to the speech what the architect's blue print is to the building. Of

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course, this analogy, like most analogies, can hardly be made to go on all fours.

Teachers of speech are interested, obviously, in much that is philology and linguistics. But it is probably safe to say that teachers of speech are more interested in specific powers and abilities of students and less in all of the aspects of historical philogical knowledge than are philologists. We take the attitude that speech in the sense in which we use it, and not written language, and not anything else, is man's most universal and fundamental mode of getting on in life, his most fundamental and universal method of adjustment to, or influence or control over, his environment,—which means, of course, over the most important part of his environment; namely, other people. We hold, also, that altogether too many people, particularly students (boys and girls, young men and young women) are less competent in this activity than they should be both for their own good and the good of society. We hold further that somebody in the schools and colleges and universities of America ought to be doing something about it. And that is our excuse for being. We are trying to do something about it.

We look around us and we look back into the history of American education and find little to indicate that the philologists and the linguists have done or are doing very much for the speech powers and abilities of American students. We find colleges and universities in which elaborate and expensive attention is paid to the sex life of the angle worm, and to the social activities of the ant, but in which no one is paying even modest and inexpensive attention to tremendously handicapping disorders of the speech of students in those same universities. We know, as everyone knows who cares to think about it, that the young man and woman who enters mature life with a serious speech disability is, to a large degree, shut out of social and professional activities, which means being shut out of a large part of human happiness and efficiency. We believe that human happiness and efficiency should be the proper, if not the primary, concern of educational institutions. We are interested in promoting, not more talking, but better talking. Our professional attitude as a whole was well-expressed by Professor Winans of Dartmouth, then of Cornell, when he wrote in regard to his courses in public speaking, "I am conducting

courses for the suppression of public speaking; that is, bad public speaking, and most of it is bad." We are conducting courses, and theatres, and laboratories, and clinics for the suppression and elimination of poor, unpleasant, ineffective speech activities of all kinds.

We believe—in fact, we know—that serious and intelligent attention paid to matters of human speech makes life liveable on better terms in innumerable ways for both the speakers and the listeners. We want, therefore, serious and intelligent attention paid by competent, educated, trained, ambitious, and industrious teachers to investigate speech problems and to teach all classes of students in the American educational system from the kindergarten to the graduate school.

The purpose of teachers of speech in American universities, as I see it, is first, to discover whatever knowledge can be discovered, in whatever fields, that has to do with speech as I have here defined it; and second, to use whatever knowledge may be discovered, in whatever way it may prove useful, in promoting proficiency in any and all aspects of human speech. We are interested both in knowledge and in proficiency. We want to find out, test, verify, and set forth, as great a body as possible of objective facts which have to do with any aspect of this fundamental and universal phase of human behavior. We are interested in turning this knowledge to the treatment, training, development of all types of speech abilities from private, intimate conversation, to the oral interpretation of literature, and to oratory.

We are frankly, I may say proudly, interested in training, interested in the development of human powers and abilities, as well as (or distinct from where the distinction is significant) the mere dissemination of knowledge. We believe that the proper function of a liberal education is, at least in large part, to be a liberating experience, to liberate the student from bad habits, from fears, inhibitions, complexes, and even from defective structure or mal-formations (that is from both physical handicaps and emotional mal-adjustments), which hinder him from taking a free and effective part in human life. We believe that this liberating, developing experience can probably be more directly found in speech training than in any other type of training available in the scheme of education.

It has come about from this attitude of ours toward training that some good folk raise their hands in horror, and exclaim, in one way or another, that this is teaching technique and not spreading truth, by which they mean facts and information. We admit the charge. We believe in technique, not all technique, but some technique. I submit that thinking, language competence (writing, not penmanship but composition), and speech, are all techniques, that primarily to these techniques we owe civilization, and that largely upon these techniques depends any man's ability to lead a civilized life. Of course, the three are not wholly separate. An influential school of modern psychologists takes the position that thinking is speech, sub-vocal speech; and it has been frequently said, and I think amply demonstrated, that whatever improves speech improves thinking and whatever improves thinking improves speech. It is obviously somewhat easier to work to improve thinking through improving speech than it is to reverse the process and seek to improve speech by directly improving thinking. Speech is easier to take hold of. Improving speech is more understandable for both student and teacher than is improving thinking. We, therefore, believe that there are proper places for courses for training in speech *per se*, while there would hardly be proper places for courses for training in thinking *per se*. Furthermore, if we wish to turn to the records of the great teachers of the human race, we can find the most impressive sanction for the position that after all the primary business of the teacher is the training of abilities, the development of techniques, rather than the dissemination of knowledge. Lane Cooper in his admirable essay on "Teacher and Student" reminds those who need the reminder that Socrates "When he taught, taught only the habit and method of investigation," which is, of course, teaching technique and not purveying knowledge.

But, of course, our interest cannot be exclusively in training for proficiency. We are definitely and deeply interested in knowledge. And you may ask what knowledge. The answer is any and all knowledge that has to do with human speech, with the history of speech activities, and the history of the teaching of speech in any of its aspects, in the works of the thinkers and writers who have left us manuscripts dealing with this activity. So we claim an equity in much of the writing of antiquity, in a

large part, and much the most important part, of the history of rhetoric. We claim Plato and Aristotle and Cicero and Quintilian as our professional forebears. From the time of these men down to the present we claim (or perhaps it would be more accurate to say that in many instances we reluctantly admit) the professional kinship of all the great and the frivolous, the sublime and the ridiculous, the learned and the ignorant, who have, in light or in darkness, dealt with or written about this aspect of human behavior.

Further, we are interested in, and claim an equity in, that part of psychology which has a bearing on speech, and also the parts of the great sciences of anatomy, physiology, physics, and psychiatry, which are related to our specific interest.

With the knowledge which these fields offer we purpose to improve human understanding and human proficiency in speech—that is, in public discussion and debate, in leadership in all walks of life through the medium of public speaking and oratory, in the business of making literature better understood and better appreciated through oral interpretation (in reading and in acting), in making human intercourse in speech on every level more pleasant, more beautiful, more effective in matters of pronunciation, (which, of course, implies the study of phonetics) and in all kinds of voice problems. Through the use of exhaustive and exact study we purpose to bring to bear the resources both of science and of devoted teaching to the problem of preventing and curing the great handicapping disorders of speech, such as stuttering and stammering, which are today destroying so much of the possibility for happiness and efficient service of hundreds of thousands of otherwise intelligent, ambitious, and well-equipped youth.

This, Ladies and Gentlemen, is the province of speech education in America today. I submit it in the confident expectation that you will use your knowledge of the fields of philology and linguistics to fill out and complete the problem of its relation to them, each according to your own conception of what the province of those fields is or ought to be.

IMPLICATIONS OF *GESTALT* PSYCHOLOGY

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FROM the days when the Platonic Socrates declared that rhetoric is like medicine, and that the rhetorician has to consider the nature of men's souls as the physician considers the nature of their bodies, down to the modern days of the un-Platonic Watson, who declares that thinking is in essence like tennis-playing, consisting largely of implicit laryngeal speech, and so implies that the rhetorician has to consider the nature of men's bodies, since men do not possess souls; from the *psyche* influenced mysteriously by the immortal gods, to the simple reflex influenced clearly by physical stimulus, the activities of speech and speech making have always been closely involved with the study called "psychology."

Consequently when a new psychology is developed, especially one which seems in some measure to harmonize these radical differences between the old and the new views, it becomes important to examine its implications for speech training and public speaking. For one not thoroughly schooled in the history and development of psychology such an examination is a somewhat doubtful task, especially since the psychologists have generally chosen to load their dissertations with a technical terminology which seems not only unnecessary, but damaging to their purposes. But I can at least suggest how the teachings of the new psychology of *Gestalt* differ from those of the older psychologies currently employed in texts on rhetoric and speech.

The psychologies of Aristotle and James are largely based upon shrewd common-sense observation, rather than on carefully controlled scientific experiment. When Aristotle says, "We like those who praise the good things which we possess, especially those which we fear we do not possess,"[1] or when James says, "When any strong emotional state whatever is upon us, the tendency is for no images but such as are congruous with it to come up,"[2] they

[1] *Rhetoric*, II, iv, 14. (Jebb's Translation.)
[2] *Briefer Course*, p. 451.

are stating what our common sense tells us is true, but what can probably not be verified by scientific experiment. More recent students of human nature, such as Thorndike and Watson, in seeking a more exact method of discovery, have turned toward physiology, where they can work with measurable physical data. Very curiously, the mechanistic psychology resulting from this excursion into physiology leads to results more mechanistic than those of the physiologists themselves. Dewey claims that knowledge lives in the muscles,[3] and Watson says that thought is "a constituent part of every adjustment process," "not different in essence from tennis-playing,"[4] etc. On the other hand, Pavlov, the great Russian physiologist, as a result of his experiments with the "conditioned reflex" in dogs, concludes that the "cerebrum is the organ for the analysis of sensations and for the construction of new reflexes and of new connections."[5] Perhaps, then, one should still believe that one's brain is something more than a conduit for telephone wires, and that in spite of all the onslaughts of the mechanists, one still has a something that might be called a "mind." Indeed, Professor Watson has not entirely succeeded even with his brother psychologists in driving "consciousness" into the realm of myth. Harvey Carr, in his presidential address before the American Psychological Association in December, 1926, while admitting that he is "somewhat of a behaviorist in the field of animal psychology," is inclined to retain the "subjective mode of approach to the study of the human mind."[6]

The shortcomings of mechanistic psychology for our purposes are two. First, it is chiefly concerned with the simplest and most primitive forms of behavior, and with trying to discover whether these simple responses are instinctive or learned. The public speaker has need for a more advanced psychology which will help him to understand how to move to action mature people, in a highly sophisticated society, and responding to very complex motives. These motives have, for the most part, not been analyzed scientifically, perhaps cannot be so analyzed. But every public speaker must form some conclusions about them, and govern his speaking

[3] *Human Nature and Conduct*, Pt. III, Chap. 1.
[4] *Psychology, from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*, p. 325.
[5] *British Medical Journal*, 1913, p. 973.
[6] *Psych. Rev.*, Vol. 34, No. 2, March, 1927.

accordingly. Second, some of the implications easily drawn from this mechanistic psychology are patently absurd. If thinking is muscular, then it would seem to follow that the "brainiest" people are the most muscular, or at least that the most intelligent are the most active. Laborers at manual toil should be better thinkers than their bosses who sit in padded chairs. The janitor with his broom thinks harder than the professor with his books. And our American intelligentsia should consist of our professional athletes. Or, if thinking is mere activity of the speech muscles, then exercise of these muscles should improve the mind, and the most talkative people are the most thoughtful. Of course, most of these implications are denied by orthodox behaviorists; but they have been pointed out so often by critics of behaviorism that they can hardly be ignored.

It is plain enough to all of us that we sometimes read without thinking, that we even read aloud or speak aloud from memory without following the voice with the mind. Strangely enough, Dewey, who seems committed to the Watsonian hypothesis (though one cannot be sure, for he evidently makes it a point to suppress all his sources), admits the possibility of this "separation of body from mind."[7] How he can admit so much while maintaining that a directing consciousness is a myth, and that thinking is muscular activity, is a bit difficult to understand.

Text-books on "speech" which have been built upon the principles of mechanistic psychology have for the most part avoided these absurd implications, even when to do so meant to abandon their avowed principles and to depend upon common sense. Where in an occasional case they have adhered to these principles and have tried to apply them, the result has been to make public speaking a kind of perpetual muscle dance.

Gestalttheorie offers an escape from both of these limitations. It applies to the higher as well as to the lower mental processes, and by its return to "consciousness" and "insight" it avoids the difficulties of a purely muscular, nervous, mechanistic, or atomistic interpretation of behavior. The word *Gestalt* is variously translated as *form, pattern, configuration, structure.* The theory to which it is currently applied is, says Miss Calkins, "one form of a very widespread contemporary protest against atomistic psycho-

[7] *Democracy and Education*, p. 167.

logy,[8] that is to say against psychology as the associated aggregate of mental elements." It urges in lieu of the atomistic theory, that "every experience is a *Gestalt*, a configuration to which corresponds a physiological, and ultimately, a physical *Gestalt*."[9]

Our sciences, in the quest for the ultimate mystery, have carried philosophical atomism to its last extreme. *Gestalttheorie* suggests that perhaps things are explained not by discovering their ultimate constituents, but by studying the things themselves, these so called constituents being really *new* things. In physics and chemistry, for instance, we have broken the molecule into atoms, and the atom into electrons. In biology we have gone down from the cell to the nucleus, from nucleus to chromosome, from chomosome to gene. But the mystery of matter lies in the arrangement of electrons into tiny "solar systems," as the mystery of life and heredity lies in the arrangement of genes.[10] If we are to understand the properties of substances or of animals, and put them to any practical use, we must deal with them as wholes, not as electrons or genes.[12]

Likewise the mechanistic behaviorists have taken the ultimate of the anatomist's analysis of the nervous system, the neurone, and from it have derived an ultimate of behavior, the nervous reflex. This reflex, natural or "conditioned," they claim is the basis of all learning. An instinct, such as the highly complex process of nursing, which a baby can perform at birth, is merely a "chain" of such reflexes. Any animal, including man, learns only by trial, chance success, and the fixation of this success by practice.

Opposed to this view is the Gestaltist's claim that a complex

[8] The protest is heard also in the fields of philosophy and politics. *Cf.* Jan Smuts, *Holism and Evolution*, N. Y., 1926.

[9] "Critical Comments on the Gestalt-Theorie," *Psych. Rev.*, Vol. 33, p. 135.

[10] *Cf.* H. S. Jennings, "Heredity and Environment," *Scientific Monthly*, Sept., 1924, XIX, p. 225.

[12] It is not only in the physical sciences that analysis into ultimate constituents may go too far. In philology August Boeckh formulated something like a *Gestalttheorie* nearly a hundred years ago. See his *Encyclopadie und Methodologie der Philologischen Wissenschaften*, especially his insistence (p. 258) that the particular can be comprehended only in connection with the whole.

instinctive process like nursing is not an aggregate of separate reflexes but an integrated whole, and that each part loses its identity when removed from its membership in the whole. As Pillsbury says, the position of the *Gestalt* school is "that the form or the whole with which analysis must begin is a more important factor than the separate factors into which the whole may be analyzed in explaining any phenomenon." He explains further, "a form is a form when it is a closed system," that is, "two processes that do not belong together cannot be put together by being attended to." The elements that go to compose such a form "are not independent entities that can in any way be regarded as having a quality apart from the whole. Rather they derive their essential characteristics from the whole in which they belong."[13] On this point Ogden cites an experiment which showed that the partial tones of a clang were not the same when produced separately as when produced as a part of the clang.[14] Helson points out that "behaviorists and introspectionists, Wundtians and associationists, alike have erred in supposing that if a given event could be reduced to its lowest terms, physical or mental, it was thereby explained."[15] According to the Gestaltists all the aspects of behavior—instinct, perception, affection, memory, are to be understood and treated as integral wholes, as patterns, and this is so, not because logically this method is most convenient, but because biologically they *are* wholes. Not only this, but the situation calling forth the response enters into the pattern of behavior. The organism acts as a whole to a unified situation. Says Professor Ogden, "Behavior is not a response to a situation, but a *situation-response.*"[16] He explains further on that "we do not know what we mean by the 'situation' which provokes these responses .... All we can say is that the situation seems to emerge as a patterned and somehow articulate whole within its less articulate surroundings, and that this 'emergence' involves a corresponding pattern of behavior attuned to the situation, and varying with its variation until what is unrolled in time and space rolls

[13] "*Gestalt* vs. Concept as a Principle of Explanation in Psychology," *Jr. Abnormal and Soc. Psych.*, Vol. XXI, No. 1, Apr. 1926, p. 14.

[14] *Psychology and Education*, Harcourt, Brace, 1926, p. 149.

[15] The Psychology of Gestalt," *Am. Jr. of Psych.*, 37, p. 189.

[16] *Op. cit.*, p. 17.

itself up again in the completion of the act. General as it is, this statement is intended to serve as a key to all behavior, including the highest and most intellectual types."[17]

On applying this new psychology to the various activities grouped under the head of "Speech," revolutionary changes in procedure are not, of course, to be expected. Psychologies may come and go, but acting and oratory and other speech activities go on to-day pretty much as they did in Aristotle's time. The most to be expected from a new psychology is that it will furnish a reinterpretation of standard methods that may give to teachers a clearer understanding of speech activities, and so facilitate acquisition of skill in them.

Let us first consider the bearings of *Gestalt* psychology upon voice and speech improvement. The mechanistic theory states that speaking and thinking are essentially one, and that their improvement must proceed together. Woolbert says, "Improved thinking will mend one's vocal expression, and improved vocal expression will mend one's thinking."[18] The method of learning in his view, and also in the view of O'Neill and Weaver,[19] is "trial and error," and then repetition of the chance success. All learning is based upon the simple reflex, natural or "conditioned."[20] A child learns to speak because adults associate the random sounds he makes with things and wants. With part of this view Professor Ogden is in essential agreement, though in common with general *Gestalt* opinion, he objects on two grounds to the conditioned reflex as the only method of learning. First, "that conditioned responses are less effective than those of a more natural order is indicated by the rapidity with which learning seems to wane after it has once been established." And second, no generalizations are logically permissible upon the conditioned reflex experiments because their artificial conditions "have no counterpart in normal behavior."[21] Pavlov taught dogs to excrete saliva

[17] P. 51.

[18] *The Fundamentals of Speech*, p. 152.

[19] *The Elements of Speech*, p. 7.

[20] See H. Cason, "The Conditioned Reflex or Conditioned Response as a Common Activity of Living Organisms," *Psych. Bul.*, Vol. 22, No. 8. August, 1925, p. 445.

[21] P. 190.

at the sound of a bell. Professor Ogden says, "Sight and smell are bound by original nature to the salivary reflex as appropriate stimuli; but sound is able to take over this function (according to the behaviorists) after it has been 'glued' firmly enough with the other two by repeated experience." He corrects this assumption with "the proviso that the sound of the bell must first enter into some kind of configurative assimilation with the behavior elicited by sight and smell."[22] Koffka says, "All learning requires the arousal of configural patterns." "Repetitions without the achievement of a configuration remain ineffective whenever they are not positively harmful." "Practise means the formation of a figure, rather than the strengthening of bonds of connection."[23] And Professor Ogden also insists that "practice does not make perfect unless the conditions under which we practice are favorable to a closer and more definite articulation of the configuration we are trying to memorize. A 'good' configuration may stamp itself at once upon a mind ready to receive it, no practice at all being necessary for its remembrance. On the other hand, a 'poor' configuration, loose-jointed and vague of contour, is not remembered until it has become articulate in behavior or in apprehension. The service rendered by practice is that of furnishing conditions favorable to a closer articulation and consequent fixation of whatever would otherwise be loose and inarticulate in form."[24] So either a perception or an act of behavior may be complete and relatively permanent without repetition. Even somewhat difficult acts involving insight were learned in one successful trial by Köhler's apes, and the learning was not only sudden but lasting.[25] The problem for the ape was to learn to employ a stick as a "tool" to secure fruit. "Learning as here described," says Professor Ogden, is not a process of accretion. The ape does not associate the stick with the fruit by a gradual effect of repetition in which he sees the two so often together that they finally become fused into a single perception; neither does he gradually associate the manipulation of a stick with the reaching movement of his arm. On the contrary, what he sees, what he touches, and what he does with his body,

[22] Pp. 188-9.
[23] *The Growth of the Mind*, p. 234.
[24] P. 193.
[25] Wolfgang Köhler, *The Mentality of Apes*, pp. 103 f.

arms, and hands, are all integral parts of one course of experienced behavior, any analysis of which in terms of different sensations or different movements would destroy the picture, just as the analysis of the partial tones of a musical clang will destroy the musical quality of a sound."[26]

Regarding the learning or re-learning of speech sounds, then, as either acts of perception or acts of skill, what procedure does *Gestalt* suggest for the teacher? One obvious implication is that mere repeated-practice of a separate sound will not insure its correct pronunciation in the context of a word or phrase. That is, foreigners who are able to make the sound of *th* as in *with*, but who habitually substitute a *t* for it, will never learn to use the correct sound by practising it alone. They must practise it in its context in a word or phrase. The situation is like that of the boy who was required to stay after school and write fifty times the form "I have gone," in order to fix it in memory. At the end of the exercise, the teacher being absent from the room, he wrote on his paper, "Dear Teacher, I have went home." The practiced phrase remained for him an isolated and meaningless fragment, un-incorporated into any meaningful configuration. The isolation of any phase of experience may vitiate its value because properly it belongs in a whole.

An additional reason for practicing words or phrases instead of separate sounds is the fact that phoneticians have discovered that sounds in isolation have not precisely the same physical formation that they have in association with others. But this should not mean that it would be bad pedagogy to focus attention on a single sound such as the vowel in *arm* before attempting to incorporate it into a verbal pattern by practicing various words containing it. Large wholes can be broken up into smaller ones, and small wholes can be combined to make large ones.

But in all such cases, and in all cases where a sound has to be *learned*, as is often the case with *th*, *r*, *wh*, etc., or where the student is vocalizing for the improvement of basic voice quality, *Gestalttheorie* would favor treating this separate sound as forming in itself a complete configuration. That is, breathing, the shaping of the speech agents for proper resonance or articulation, kinaes-

[26] P. 251.

thetic sensations of the speech muscles, and auditory sensations should all be blended into a total coenaesthesia, an indivisible whole, and practiced with concentration on the end or result, which in this case would be, presumably, the sound as conceived by the student's own mind. For, says Koffka, "the more strictly motor a task is, the less has consciousness to do with learning it, and the more must the learner be directed upon the result."[27] And Ogden says "we must *feel our way through* a skillful act; for the members are always tied so intimately together that a conscious analysis of what we are doing can have no other result than that of disrupting the membered unity of the whole."[28] And again, "The configuration of the entire act must be heeded; an over-emphasis of any part-movement ... would be disastrous to the performance as a whole."[29]

A different *Gestalt* principle should prove serviceable in teaching some of the finer distinctions between vowels on the "phonetic triangle." Ogden reports that "in one of his experiments in the choice-training of apes, Köhler employed a series of five colors, *blue, indigo, violet, purple,* and *red,* to designate the direction of choice. At first he tried to train the animals with two adjacent colors of this series, but his effort was in vain; no ape could at first distinguish colors so near one another as *indigo* and *violet.* He then employed two colors separated by one grade, such as *indigo* and *purple,* which the apes learned to discriminate without difficulty. After this training had been successfully carried out, Köhler returned to the finer discrimination of of the adjacent colors, and found that the apes were now able to "transfer" their training, and choose the redder or the bluer of any two colors in the series. It appears, then, that a gradient which at first manifests itself only in a crude manner refines itself once it has been established.... It is not the absolute data of sense, but the pattern of arrangement—the gradient—that determines discriminative action; and all finer discriminations must be prepared for by grosser discriminations within the same pattern of gradation."[30]

[27] *Op. cit.*, p. 258.
[28] P. 139.
[29] P. 239.
[30] Pp. 284-5.

If one finds, then, that students are unable to discriminate between the *a* in *arm* and the *a* in *ask*, the obvious course is first to compare *arm* with *at*, and when that discrimination can be made, work for the finer one between *arm* and *ask*. The same principle can be applied to learning to use a better quality of voice, or any other fine discrimination. This is a device that would hardly suggest itself to the mechanists, who assume that sensations of color, pitch, and the like are "absolute."

What was said above concerning the isolation of separate sounds would also apply to gesture. "How can one learn to fall gracefully?" asks Professor Ogden. "The answer to this question gives us the key to the learning of any skillful act. Grace and skill go hand in hand; their achievement is never the result of combining acts which themselves are awkward and unskillful. In order to do anything gracefully and skillfully, one must first hit upon the "fortunate variation" in behavior which is most suitable to the conditions."...

"In order to acquire a 'stage-fall' one must resort to practice; but practice will never bring perfection in the art unless one hits upon an appropriate method, and selects it by the way it *feels*. The principle of learning how to fall gracefully, and indeed of learning how to do anything with skill, is not practice alone, but the creation of a response which is felt to be appropriate to the conditions imposed. Practice merely affords opportunity for making such a selection. We do not become graceful by simply repeating an awkward act until we become inured to it; for grace means economy of action, the right coördination of flexion and contraction."[31]

From these statements it follows that attention to the separate parts of a gesture is bad. Each gesture should be treated as a whole, or rather as merely an aspect of a total bodily and mental response. It will become graceful or effective when it comes to feel right. A mechanistic view of gesture, on the other hand, would favor an analysis of a movement into its parts, and the separation of the gesture from its context in behavior. And such is indeed the teaching of Woolbert who makes a detailed analysis of various hand positions.[32] His view, and that of O'Neill and

[31] Pp. 137-8.

[32] *Op. cit.* p. 132. In the revised edition, pp. 127-35.

Weaver, both based upon Watsonian behaviorism, is that gesture is a phase of emotion, since emotion and motion are synonymous. Both these texts give considerable space to the consideration of stage-fright as a factor inhibiting gesture. Their recommendation that stage-fright be cured by loosening up the voluntary muscles (they consider the malady as purely muscular) would seem to be good *Gestalttheorie*, as such treatment would tend to destroy the configuration of the situation, and so break up the emotion. However, the Gestaltists have a quite different theory of emotion. With them emotion is not the vague undifferentiated matrix of motion from which (here they agree with the behaviorists) any act of *intelligence* must be particularized and refined. It is rather the affective color that clings to a configuration—vague, unanalyzable, and belonging "to the pattern of experience, not to its members as such."[33] It would seem, then, that the Gestaltist's method of curing stage-fright would be, not an attempt to break up the manifestations of fear by physical means, but rather the attempt to substitute a new situation for the one to which fear clung, a situation with a different or neutral tone. And this is indeed the common-sense sort of thing which we find ourselves doing when we say to a poor frightened student about to make his first speech, "Why, this is a perfectly normal situation you are in. You are merely going to talk to some people, as you have talked many times before, and they are friendly, and interested in you, and will be glad to hear what you have to say"; or when we interrupt him with some question in the midst of his speech, in order to get him to thinking quietly and normally about his subject matter, so that he will stop thinking about himself.

When we turn to that phrase of speech training generally called Oral Interpretation, we find that some of these same principles are again applicable. To the mechanist, all learning is by "trial and error." This process is summarized by Woolbert as follows: "Random movement, success, movement repeated but less random, more success, than an act of will, and finally automatic action, or habit." He says further that "the process of learning to speak and to read follows just this course, and 'increase of skill' follows the same course."[34] But to the Gestaltist, trial and error

[33] Ogden, p. 152.

[34] *Op. cit.*, p. 286. In the revised edition, p. 58.

is not a method of learning at all. Unless such random movements succeed in forming a configuration they do not even amount to a "differentiation," which, in Professor Ogden's view, is only the first and lowest and least intelligent method of learning. More intelligent methods are, first, "assimilation," in which two already known acts or perceptions enter into a new situation and become at once members of a new pattern of behavior; second, "gradation," where a direction of change (in brightness, quantity, loudness, and the like, once learned is transferred to a new situation; third, "re-definition," in which a perception is re-defined by a process of re-centering or re-focusing, as when one is able to see in a flat drawing of a cube either a corner or a hexagon, or when the same gesture or facial expression may have different meanings in different contexts.[35]

Hence it would seem that some better direction can be given the poor student than merely "to make a stagger at it." With an intelligent appreciation of the meaning of a passage, he should be able to read it right at the first trial, because he can "transfer" to it the experience he has acquired in previous reading and speaking. This "transfer of training" is what A. E. Phillips recommended years ago in his ingenious "tone-copying" drills,[36] by which one learns to read a new and strange phrase from some unfamiliar classic, by transferring to it the voice pattern habitually used in some analogous familiar colloquial expression. Such a reading, if performed with insight and appreciation is generally "right" the first time. It is difficult to see how behaviorists can recommend this method so heartily when committed to the "trial and error" theory of learning.

Gestalttheorie would oppose the division of words and syllables into their constituent slides, stresses, and qualities, and all similar mechanical devices for learning expression. It would teach that a spoken word is not an aggregate of the constituent elements of time, force, quality, and pitch into which it may be analyzed, but is an integral whole, and a part of a larger whole—the phrase in which it occurs. The unit of expression would be, not the single word, much less some expressional aspect of a word, but the *whole phrase or sentence.* The older psychologies pointed out that the

[35] See Ogden, Chap. XIV.

[36] *Natural Drills in Expression*, Chicago, 1909.

"span of attention" was limited, that no one could attend continuously to an object that did not change. *Gestalt* suggests that these regular periods of exhaustion indicate a need for closing a circuit, that they are the ends of perceptual units, and that thought proceeds (in continuous discourse) by means of a succession of more or less closely linked but separate patterns. The reader's problem is to sharpen these configurations. As Winans says, "His mind should receive a distinct impression from each phrase.[37] Ogden says, "Perception is limited to the events one can continuously give heed to."[38] In oral reading this "event" is a phrase.

Correct expression should arise spontaneously from the correct and clear apprehension of the pattern of thought. The organism makes a total response to a total situation, the situation being expressed in a pattern of words. Analysis of the various aspects of the response—the angle of the jaws in articulation, the secretion of the glands, the curve of a particular inflectional slide, or any other phase of the total activity, can only spoil its necessary together-ness, and destroy the "affective tone" or feeling, that should accompany it.

Phrases themselves, of course, are only parts of larger wholes, such as sentences, paragraphs, and poems, and must always be treated as such. Analysis into phrases, or even into finer units, may at times be advisable, but it should always be accompanied by synthesis. Or, as Ogden says, "integration goes hand in hand with differentiation." These terms he prefers for this reason: "While analysis suggests breaking something up into its constituent parts, differentiation as we have employed the term in its biological sense, means a specialization of function within the pattern of a total organic response."[39] And again, "There need be no tearing away of a specialized act from its context: instead, the entire response can be so re-shaped that the specialized action will emerge more clearly as the dominant feature of the entire act,"[40] that is, it will become not separate *from* it but separate *in* it. And indeed, for purposes of interpretation, how else can one study a word or phrase or sentence except in its context!

[37] *Public Speaking*, p. 430.
[38] P. 129.
[39] P. 253.
[40] P. 242.

The James-Lange theory of emotion, first incorporated into a Public Speaking text, I believe, by Professor Winans,[41] has been useful in teaching speech-making, interpretation, and acting, because one could so easily say to his pupils when their performance was colorless, "Throw yourself into it. Go through the motions of feeling earnest and aggressive, and you will *become* earnest and aggressive." Our method was vindicated by the fact that the bashful youth whom we compelled in nightly rehearsals to go through the motions of love-making, did in fact fall in love. The psychology of acting is unfortunately still to be written. When it appears it can hardly fail to take note of the James-Lange theory, for the theory does work. But I suspect that the explanation of it offered by James and Lange is, by any of the more recent psychologies, all wrong. I think a Gestaltist would say that, yielding to man's incurable tendency to analyze and to seek causes, they had merely taken two phases of emotion and called one the cause and the other the effect. They would probably subject Allport to the same criticism. He says there enters consciousness a complex of sensations from the skeletal muscles, from the viscera, etc., which "seems to spread out and pervade our whole being. This fused complex of sensory experience is what we call an emotion."[42] O'Neill and Weaver call attention also to the glandular secretions involved in emotional activity. But Professor Ogden insists that "All emotions are aspects of primitive impulses, and are inseparable from the patterns of situation-response, which not only indicate their origin but are their being."[43] He says also that we should "regard the phenomena of affection as individual wholes, which can be adequately described and defined only in their totality."[44]

[41] But it was known to Aristotle. He says, in Chapter 17 of the *Poetics* (Lane Cooper's amplified version, p. 58), "So far as he is able, the poet should also assume the very attitudes and gestures appropriate to the emotions of the agents," as an aid in composing speeches. Professor Cooper cites this passage from Burke: "I have often observed that on mimicking the looks and gestures of angry, or placid, or frighted, or daring men, I have involuntarily found my mind turned to that passion whose appearance I endeavored to imitate."

[42] As cited by O'Neill and Weaver, p. 47.

[43] P. 152.

[44] P. 149.

The *Gestalt* explanation of the fact that emotion or feeling follows a simulation of feeling, would probably be that if one member of a patterned whole is present, nature tends to complete the pattern or close the circuit, so that going through the motions that properly belong to an emotion tends to bring on the appropriate feeling.

Ogden says further that "feeling belongs to the pattern of experience, not to its members as such." "Analysis causes the members of a configuration to become themselves individual wholes; and, accordingly, the affective coloration of the old configuration vanishes when the new configuration appears."[45]

The way, then, to develop "emotional response" in the reader would seem to be, not to inoculate him with adrenalin, or put him through a set of calisthenics, or in any other way try to put together the "parts" which compose an emotion, or even to draw his attention to those parts, but rather to sharpen the contours of the patterns of the thoughts which he is to read. This is in effect the "natural" method of reading defined by Bishop Whately,[46] and amplified by Professor Winans.[47]

Let us turn now to rhetoric. A thorough and consistent application of psychology to rhetoric in modern times is found in Winans' *Public Speaking*, based upon the psychology of James, Titchener, and Pillsbury. The central concept in Winans treatment of the subject is *attention*. No matter what the speaker's purpose, whether to inform, to convince, or to persuade, the invariable means to his end is through the attention of his audience. Winans makes further application of the principles of attention to the speaker's preparation of his material, and to his mental action during delivery. Attention is indeed a handy and useful concept. O'Neill and Weaver have recognized this in their attempt to assimilate it into mechanistic behaviorism by translating it into "muscle tensions."[48] Winans, following James, identifies attention with interest. "What-we-attend-to and what-interests-us are synonymous terms."[49] He considers emotion as valuable chief-

[45] Pp. 152 and 150.
[46] *Elements of Rhetoric*, Part IV, chap. ii.
[47] *Public Speaking*, Chapters XIII and XIV, especially pp. 459-61.
[48] *Op. cit.*, p. 300.
[49] Winans, p. 53.

ly for its contribution to attention. To arouse emotion one should awaken desire for the end sought. Then emotion will encourage attention, and attention will lead to action or belief.

To the Gestaltist this is pretty sure to look like a mechanical process of hitching things which naturally form a whole into an artificial chain of cause and effect. Thorndike has labored to correct what he considers the false view "that interest is nothing but the attitude of attentiveness." He says, "What a man attends to is a matter of instincts and habits, modified like them in accord with the law of effect. The tendencies to be satisfied and annoyed which determine the lines of force of the law of effect are prime determiners of man's intellect and character. Common sense calls them his 'wants' or 'interests' and they may well retain that name."[50] When one has reduced all motivation to attention, the question always remains, What *causes* things to attract our attention? Reducing all experience and control of conduct to terms of attention is like reducing the motivation of an automobile to the rotation of the wheels. It is true that when the wheels turn, the car moves forward, but what is it that makes the wheels go? It is not enough to reply, the turning of the axle. We seek always for ultimate, or rather root, causes. Of course we don't find them, for when we have discovered that our car is driven by explosions of gasoline set off by electric sparks, the mystery of the spark and the mystery of explosion remain. However, it is helpful to get as near to a root cause as we can, so in explaining human conduct we seek some basic concept that will be universally applicable. "Attention" is such a concept, and there are many others which at various times have served various writers. Aristotle wrote, "It may be said that all men, individually and in the aggregate, have some aim, with a view to which they choose and avoid; and this may be summarily described as happiness,"[51] and he adds a long list of happinesses. And, since men argue about the expedient, which is a good, he adds a long catalogue of Goods. Bishop Whately reduces persuasion to an appeal to the "passions," or the "active principles" of our nature.[52] A. E. Phillips made what

[50] *The Original Nature of Man*, p. 299.

[51] *Rhetoric, I*, v.

[52] *Op. cit.*, Part II, chap. i.

is presumably an original classification of "impelling motives."[53] Thorndike classifies all native responses as "attractive" or "avoiding."[54] Dewey makes "purposive activity" the prime educational motive and method.[55] And there have been attempts to reduce all motivation to thrill-craving, to fear, etc. Motive, emotion, affection, desire, happiness, good, instinct,—all these, viewed as instigators to action, may be interpreted as having substantially the same meaning. Does the concept *Gestalt* have anything to add to them? Or is it merely a re-interpretation of what is already familiar and in use?

Gestalttheorie does on some points merely involve a re-interpretation of what has long been known and used by speakers and rhetoricians. It may be worth while here to translate some of the topics treated by Winans into this new terminlogy: Ogden does not discuss persuasion as such, but much of what he says on Memory and the Process of Learning is substantially a discussion of persuasion. For instance, "The important thing is to make the first presentation of a new subject adequate to the development that must ensue." And "A good teacher will draw the lines of a new subject so skillfully that an engaging pattern will be formed in the mind of the pupil by the first presentation." And "It should be the object of the teacher to present a problem which stimulates the pupil's curiosity, and at the same time avoids confusing him with fortuitous and misleading details. In other words, first impressions on the memory should be of those figures which are potentially "good," and which will arouse a definite want for their fulfillment." "Attention is synonymous with the perception of a "good" figure, the structure and contour of which are articulate and definite."[56]

Winan's discussion of the "familiar" and the "novel"[57] would then be interpreted thus: The familiar has power upon us when its contours are still sharp and distinct in our minds. It becomes trite when its pattern is obscured. Novelty also attracts our attention when it makes for us a clear pattern. If the materials of

[53] *Effective Speaking*, Chap. V.
[54] *Op. cit.*
[55] *Democracy and Education*, especially chaps. VIII and IX.
[56] Pp. 218, 219, 162.
[57] Chap. III.

a new perception cannot be articulated into a distinct configuration, then they have no hold upon us. Winans' statement that to *sustain* attention to a topic "requires change in our way of thinking about it, a shifting of our attention from point to point,"[58] comes to mean that we should incorporate our idea into one configuration after another, either by "re-definition," or by forming completely new configurations. For, says Ogden, "motives for recall," and so presumably other factors also, "may have innumerable configurations to which they belong."[59]

Of modern writers on style, Winans seems to be alone in discovering the too facile ease with which "concrete" is ordinarily separated from "abstract." So far as the persuasive value of words is concerned, this distinction is almost completely valueless. The abstraction "Make the world safe for Democracy" may be just as moving as the more concrete "Remember the Maine." What matters is that the term used be *familiar* or "practical."[60] That is, it will be effective with us when it is recognized as a part of some familiar configuration, particularly if the configuration has a "strong effective tone," that is, arouses emotion. "High taxes," in spite of its greater "abstractness," as that word is generally used, may be more moving than "thirty mills."

Winans' injunction to present our material to the audience in such a form that it will appeal to their imagination, is, in *Gestalt* terminology, merely an injunction to present it in *Gestalten*, in clear configurations; or to suggest configurations which the audience will complete for themselves. "Whenever an observation is incomplete, a native urge for completion leads to the supplementation of the missing parts or members."[61] And in general the same translation may be made of all the various methods advocated of "deriving interests," since deriving interest is merely a matter of fitting new concepts or events into old configurations of experience—instincts and perceptions. Such re-interpretation can readily be made of such topics in Winans as Unity of thought and feeling, Curiosity, Suspense, Anticipation, Humor (a configuration with an incongruous element?), Antagonism, Activity, Illus-

[58] P. 62.
[59] P. 206.
[60] See Winans' quotations from Dewey, pp. 68-70.
[61] Ogden, p. 228.

tration (Winans' discussion shows admirably how to sharpen the contour of a configuration). Persuasion might be defined as the incorporation of a desired action into some pattern of behavior, as completing the circuit of some instinctive reaction. As to Conviction, Helson, in summarizing Wertheimer's theory of logical thinking, says, "Creative thinking consists in the transposition of a member of one configuration to another. Thus members of two different configurations (the premises) are identified as belonging to a common (new) configuration (the conclusion).... Insight depends upon the ability to break up existing configural structures, and to make fruitful transpositions from one configuration to another."[62]

But is a re-interpretation of familiar procedure all that we can expect from *Gestalttheorie?* Does it offer any *new* light on persuasion, or at least indicate a new emphasis, or clarify some present obscurity? It seems to me that it does.

In the first place, it points the way to a safer treatment of emotion than is found in most texts. As suggested above, if emotion arises from instincts and perceptions, it can largely be left to take care of itself, for in every normal speaker and audience those emotions will arise which are appropriate to the pattern presented. Analysis of emotion into endocrine secretions and muscle tensions will profit the speaker nothing.

Second, *Gestalttheorie* corrects the false emphasis upon mere repetition as a method of persuasion. The implications of both the conditioned reflex experiments and the older "association" theory are that mere iteration is the chief weapon of persuasion. In this regard, both Woolbert and O'Neill and Weaver were wise enough to ignore the plain implications of the psychology they follow. Köhler's demonstration that a new response may be learned suddenly and permanently at one trial has quite different implications. Men are not heard merely for their much speaking. As Helson says, "the supposed linkage of meaningless elements through mere repetition simply does not occur." Incidentally, this discovery should save millions of dollars to the advertising men.

Third, as a fundamental basis for the entire theory and procedure of public speech, "*Gestalt* is a more useful concept than

[62] *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 37, p. 55.

either pleasure, attention, or muscle tensions. That is, in the process of speech preparation, or speech delivery, the speaker is better prepared to handle the situation when he knows that he must somehow present to his audience clear configurations, than if he knows merely that he must please them, or get their attention, or alter their, or his, muscle tensions. *Gestalt* is a universal formula, underlying all instincts, all perceptions, all habit, all thought, pervading both logic and bio-logic.

Fourth, when Ogden says that in instinctive behavior, "a total, vague, and undifferentiated response becomes, through a creative effort, differentiated and discreet,"[63] and that "all learning depends, in the first place, upon particularization, or the emergence of a pattern of behavior having some degree of cohesion,"[64] and that an animal's intelligence "is the animal's ability to transform an inarticulate mass into an articulate pattern,"[65] he suggests a fundamental method of procedure for problems of speech composition. We furnish our students with readings on the subject about which they are to speak. These will combine and mingle with materials from their previous reading and reflection. Then we must require them to "transform this inarticulate mass into an articulate pattern,"—a pattern that takes the form of a logical outline. They must bring "form" out of chaos. Such a method will not only provide the teacher with a reliable intelligence test, but it will teach the student a sound method for all his creative thought processes. That even the highest products of creative art are just this re-combination and articulation of materials received into the artist's mind from without, is demonstrated in the recent work of professor J. L. Lowes.[66] Here surely *Gestalt* sets us upon a sound pedagogical method.

Fifth, *Gestalt* lays emphasis upon a certain quality of "periodicity" in style. It suggests that there was sound psychological reason in the practice of the ancients of rounding their thought repeatedly into the "periods" characteristic of classical oratory. The same characteristic is evident in many of the popular modern orations intended for lyceum or chautauqua audiences. Their rhe-

[63] P. 122.
[64] P. 244.
[65] P. 269.
[66] *The Road to Xanadu*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1927.

torical plan is often a succession of precise, clearly contoured patterns, each consisting of a pat illustration, or brief logical development, and each rounded to a close by the devices both of rhetoric and of delivery. Graphically such a style might be represented as a succession of over-lapping circles, each circle or configuration including as a nucleus some portion of the preceding circle; or better, perhaps, as a series of circles grouped about a central circle, each containing a portion of the central theme. This is, in some measure, the plan of Russell Conwell's famous lecture, "Acres of Diamonds." All of his stories and illustrations, each rounded skillfully to a close, contain a portion of the central theme that "one's opportunity for success is not far to seek." These popular lecturers, like Demosthenes and Aristotle before them, know the public mind.[67]

On the other hand, where the speaker's aim is not so much to impress ideas firmly and permanently on his hearers' minds, as merely to divert or entertain them, or to advertise himself by a mystification of his audience, he will deal in broken circles, fragments, scintillating bits of this and that, sometimes rising to a forced emotional climax, not based upon any clear configuration, which may bring his hearers to their feet applauding—they don't quite know what.

Such, then, are some of the implications of *Gestalt* psychology as I see them. They are not in any sense revolutionary, but they do add strength and dignity to methods long practised in speech training and public speaking. For the *Gestalt* theory is not, strictly speaking a new one. Its metaphysical implications were developed by Plato and Aristotle, and they apply not merely to rhetoric and pedagogy, but to all the manifestations of nature and the creations of man, from the homely table and bed of Plato's illustration, to the highest forms of art. Earlier in this paper I have pointed out how this concept of *Gestalt* or "form" seems to lie at the foundation of our study or physics and chemistry, biology and physiology, philology, phonetics, and logic. Its fundamental importance in philosophy is attested by a long list of the followers of Plato, including an impressive array of History's best minds, —Dante, Bacon, Chaucer, Hooker, Milton. The acceptance of *form* as the "essential determinant principle of a thing, . . . the

[67] On periodicity, see Ogden's quotation from Whitehead, pp. 130-1.

essential creative quality,'' to quote the New English Dictionary, brings us as near, perhaps, as we shall ever come to the Ultimate Mystery. Edmund Spenser wrote in his *Hymn in Honor of Beauty:*

> What time the world's great Workmaster did cast
> To make all things such as we now behold
> It seems that He before His eyes had plast
> A goodly *paterne,* to whose perfect mould
> He fashioned them as comely as He could.

And later:

> For of the soule the bodie forme doth take,
> *For soule is forme,* and doth the body make.

HOW DO THE VOCAL CORDS VIBRATE?

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§1

In 1926 Robert West came to the conclusion that the vibrations of the two vocal cords are in opposite phase, and probably nodal.[1]

The general assumption of laryngologists and phoneticians at that time was that the vibrations of the two vocal cords are in phase and total.[2]

My task was to examine the arguments which lead to such

[1] See this Journal 12, 1926, pp. 253 and 272.

[2] The question whether the vibrations of the vocal cords are synchronous or alternate was first put by Carl Ludwig Merkel in 1857; see p. 411 of his *Anatomie und Physiologie des menschlichen Stimm- und Sprachorgans.* The question was investigated experimentally chiefly in the years 1884-1888; see esp. D. J. Koschlakoff, "Ueber die Schwingungstypen der Stimmbänder" in Pflüger *Archiv* 38, 1886, 428-476; N. P. Simanowski, "Die Anwendung der Photographie bei Untersuchungen der Stimmbänderschwingungen" in Pflüger's *Archiv* 37, 1885, pp. 375-382, and the same author's "Ueber die Schwingungen der Stimmbänder bei Lähmungen verschiedener Kehlkopfmuskeln" in Pflüger's *Archiv* 42, 1888, pp. 104-119.

contradictory conclusions and, if necessary and possible, to find new ones for a definite decision.[3]

§2

1. The main experimental *arguments of West* are:
   a. Stroboscopic observations of a model with flat rubber membranes, the vocal cords in a cadaver's larynx, the lips in trumpet blowing, and the skin between two fingers when blown upon.
   b. The observation of double frequency of the point of a man's Adam's apple and, at least at certain pitches, in a man's voice as seen in Koenig's manometric flame.
   c. The observation that such double frequency is also found on the walls of the rubber model in which alternate vibration was seen.
2. His *explanations* of the phenomenon are:
   a. That, according to certain laws of hydrodynamics, eddies form and break off, alternately, at the edges of the two membranes which form the glottis, and thus produce a relief of pressure which regularly shifts from side to side.
   b. That structural asymmetries of the two vibrators cause asymmetries of pressure which tend to compensate themselves and thereby cause the bands to move in opposite directions.
3. His theory *implies:*
   a. That the vocal cords are "bands" capable of *free* up and down vibration.
   b. That the tone of membrane pipes, and of reed pipes in general, is produced by the impacts of the reeds upon the surrounding air.
   c. That, in the human voice production, the alternating impacts of the two vocal cords are added together and thus make up an air vibration of double frequency so that the true tone of the larynx must be the octave of the tone of a single vocal cord.
4. Hereby he is forced to present special explanations for the

[3] I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to Dean C. E. Seashore at whose suggestion this study was undertaken in the Psychological Laboratory of the State University of Iowa, in the Winter of 1926-27.

fact that still the *fundamental* and not the octave is heard under normal conditions. As such explanations he offers:

a. That a resonator, e. g., the box in the model, or the pharynx in men, selects the tone of one vocal cord and suppresses the tone of the other.

b. That, in consequence of asymmetries, the impacts of the two cords are not equal and that the rhythmic unit for the perception of the tone is, in this case, made up of two impacts rather than of one.

§3

1. The *arguments of West's opponents* are:

a. Stroboscopic observations of a great variety of models, with the rubber membranes placed both flat and at various angles; observations of frog muscles; of blown-up rubber cushions of different shape and arrangement; stroboscopic observation of cadaver's larynxes, both human and animal; photography of the mouth lips in trumpet blowing.

b. Combined stroboscopic and stereoscopic observation and photography (moving pictures) of the vibrating vocal cords in living subjects, with the throat mirror and similar devices.

c. Special experiments on living dogs.

d. The puff-character of the vocal vibrations.

e. The probable shape and arrangement of the *living* vocal cords *during action* which will not allow for other than synchronous upward and outward movements.

2. Their *explanation* is, with unessential modifications by the newer results of hydrodynamics, the same as was given by Garcia in 1855:

> The voice is formed in one unique manner,—*by the compressions and expansions of the air, or the successive and regular explosions which it produces in passing through the glottis.* The ligaments of the glottis . . . close the passage, and present a resistance to the air. As soon as the air has accummulated sufficiently, it parts these folds and produces an explosion. But at the same instant,—by virtue of their elasticity, and the pressure from below being relieved, they meet again to give rise to a fresh explosion. A series of these compressions and expansions . . . produces the voice. . . . If we consider that the lips of this aperture, taken separately, can give no sound, however, we may try to make them speak, we must admit that the sounds which they give

forth by their mutual action, are only owing to the explosions of the air produced by their strokes. It is not necessary in order to obtain the explosion of the sound, that the glottis should be perfectly closed each time after its opening; it suffices that it should oppose an obstacle to the air capable of developing its elasticity.[4]

3. Their theory *implies*

a. That the vocal cords are relatively thick lips, capable of striking "upward and outward" vibration.

b. That the impact of the vibrator is not essential but that the changes of the *width of the glottis* alone is responsible for the resulting air vibrations.

c. That one full vibration of the two vocal cords makes one single opening of the glottis and so, quite naturally, the air vibration has the same fundamental as the cords.

4. Thus it is necessary from this standpoint to find other explanations than by the mode of vibration *for the double frequency* that is observed, under certain circumstances, at the Adam's apple and in the voice of men. As such explanations might be offered:

a. The influence of tension of the vibrators on their point of attachment.

b. The special mechanism of "open" in contrast to "closed" tones.

c. The influence of bronchial resonance.

§4

We consider first West's *arguments.*

1. His model observations, and the very careful corresponding observations of Oertel, Koschlakoff, Simanowski, and L. Réthi of 1876-1897 were done over by the writer and it was found:

a. That the observation of *alternate movement* was correct, but only for the flat (180°) model of West; that in models with almost flat (150°) membranes alternate vibration also occurs but only *besides* synchronous vibration; that in membranes at angles of 120° the alternate vibration occurs only as an occasional border line phenomenon between synchronous vibration and "hoarseness," that is, coupled vibrations of different frequency which produce the polyphony and the rattling that

[4] Manuel Garcia, "Observations on the Human Voice," *Philos. Mag.* 10,1855, 218.

is known from serious colds in men; that in membranes at angles of 90° or less and in lip-like folded membranes (Fig. 1) at any angle *no alternate vibration but only either synchronous vibration or hoarseness* are found.

Fig. 1.

The observation of alternate vibration on a cadaver's larynx was *not* correct; Koschlakoff observed synchronous vibration in *ten* of them, and his observation moreover was verified by a number of other investigators and is therefore far more reliable.

The observation of alternate vibration in the mouth lips while trumpet blowing was *not* correct. This action was photographed kinematographically by Panconcelli-Calzia in 1927, and the photographs clearly show synchronous vibrations.

After the discussion of the last two observations no discussion of West's observation of the skin between two fingers is necessary since for this observation the conditions are still less favorable.

b. The observation of *nodes* was *not* correct; it was but a stroboscopic illusion which, in our and Musehold's experiments, proved to appear only if the vibrating edges *were not exposed at once* over their whole length by the slits of the stroboscope.

2. The observation of double frequency at a man's Adam's apple and in certain pitches, also in his voice, *is correct,* as was found in own tracings taken simultaneously from the mouth and from the throat.

3. If the walls of the model and of the larynx make both double vibrations, their mode of vibration may still be different. In accordance with W. Weber's principle of reed pipe action (see below §6b) it can be shown that such typical

double vibrations as were recorded by West, namely, with *pairs of two unequal humps,* may be caused by three different modes of vibration, of which two are synchronous.[5]

§5

The *explanations* of the alternate vibration.

a. The explanation by eddy action does not hold; first, because the eddies do not form and break off in regular alternation (own observation); second, because "it is not until it reaches a distance of some centimetres that the outpouring sheet splits up into eddies or vortices..." (Helmholtz).

b. *The explanation by the influence of structural asymmetries is correct.* The chief factor was found to be the asymmetry of *tension.* With perfectly symmetrical position and tension, not in the writer's experiments but in Koschlakoff's and Simanowski's, even in the flat model synchronous vibration was recorded. In the oblique membranes the synchronous vibration was, under favorable conditions, not disturbed until the difference of tension grew as great as a minor third, in terms of pitch; in lip-shaped folds this range was even as wide as a fourth (and beyond its limits, as was mentioned above, no alternate vibration but hoarseness was found in the writer's experiments). In accordance to this, in hydrodynamic experiments of the writer this influence of structural asymmetry proved to be considerable *only in "flat models,"* i. e., in dams at about right angles to the stream, whereas in oblique dams strong structural asymmetry provoked no considerable differences of pressure at the two sides of the jet of water.

§6

The *implications* of West's hypothesis.

a. That the vocal cords have the shape of flat membranes is wrong. The writer took frontal X-ray photographs of the vocal cords of two male subjects while a tone of 160 d. v. was sung. For this purpose, the sensitive plate was put into the œsophagus with a special slide, in order to avoid the silhouette of the back bone.[6] As Fig. 2 shows, *the vocal cords are not bands but lips* and even

[5] An extensive account of the writer's study is being published in the *Iowa Studies in Psychology (Psychological Monographs)* under the title "The Mode of Vibration of the Vocal Cords"; see the "Analysis of the Main Argument" there.

[6] See my account in the *Iowa Studies in Psychology.*

thicker than the folds used in our model experiments; besides—at least in the observed pitch—they are in a sloped position so that their vibrations are striking and not free.

b. Since W. Weber's experiments in 1825 it was known, and generally accepted since Garcia's publication in 1855, that *in reed*

pipes the air vibration is not caused by the rhythmical impacts of the vibrator (or the two vibrators) but by the rhythmical changes in the width of the opening.[7] Even with *two* vibrating bodies therefore obviously only *one* tone exists and not a mixture of two; and all arguments, operating with different "tones produced by the two vocal bands" and relations between these two tones, *break down.*

c. See the last sentence above. Besides this, if vibration in opposite phase are added together no double vibration is obtained but the well-known *compensation by interference.* There are no exceptions from this rule.—That in West's alternately vibrating model, but equally in certain sychronously vibrating double membrane pipes and even in pipes with only one free reed, double pressure vibrations occur, is, according to (b), caused by the fact

[7] The first to assume this for the action of the human larynx was Johann Jacob Heinrici in 1681.

that the slit is opened and closed twice during one full period of the vibrator in these models.

§7

Why is *the fundamental* heard?

a. About any factor, like resonance, *selecting* one tone and suppressing the other see §6b. But in whatever way resonance might act, it cannot be the controlling factor. In his own experiments the writer changed the resonance of the tubes through two octaves without obtaining any change of the pitch in his models.

b. *The assumption is correct* that the rhythmic unit for the tone perception is made up of *two impacts* rather than of one, *provided that the two impacts are not equal.* But in West's model the impacts do not differ because they come from different vibrators but (according to §6b) because, by the actual arrangement of these vibrators, two subsequent openings of the slit cannot be equal. This was verified in own experiments.

§8

1. The *arguments of West's opponents* already have been treated to a considerable extent in the preceding sections.

a. Cp. §4a.

b. G. Panconcelli-Calzia's laryngoscopic *moving pictures* of the vibrating vocal cords themselves show clearly (and mensurably) synchronous and total vibration.

c. In Simanowski's experiments on dogs and his and Oertel's observations on diseased people alternate vibration occured only with perfect paralysis of *one* vocal cord, that is, with extreme asymmetry, as it disappeared again with the paralysis of *both* cords.

d. See E. W. Scripture's *"Elements of Experimental Phonetics* (1902), p. 263; freely vibrating bands could (according to Helmholtz) produce no other than *sinusoidal* air vibrations which, according to all existing records, occur but occasionally.

e. The *shape* of the *living vocal cords during action* was not perfectly known to West's opponents. The shape of the *lower surface* was only constructed by reasoning from the shape of the top surface and from the conditions in dead larynxes. But the X-ray pictures taken by the writer showed

that their reasoning was correct, and that the "cushion pipes" devised by Ewald and Wethlo in 1913[8] were true reproductions of the acting larynx.

2. There is no objection against the modernized theory of Garcia.[9]

3. The three implications of this theory are in accordance with physical laws and experience.

a. That the vocal cords are thick lips is in accordance with the writer's X-ray photographs.

b. That the openings of the glottis make the tone is in accordance with Weber's principle of reed pipe action (§6b).

c. That the fundamental is perceived does not require discussion under Garcia's assumption, that each vibration of the vocal cords causes one opening of the glottis.

§9

How then in a man's voice and on his Adam's apple do double vibrations occur?

a. Tension cannot be the cause. If tension were the cause of the double vibrations, these should appear only at the Adam's apple and not in the voice; besides, the two-part vibrations should always be equal, which does not agree with West's findings.

b. Piehlke and Gutzmann[10] found that in "open" tones always the second partial is dominant; this would suggest a reduction of the phenomenon of double vibrations to the special mechanism of "open" tones. In West's experiments, then, only open and no closed tones would have been observed, which is very probable since a man's natural tone is the open tone. *But this would not account for the peculiar distribution, especially the undoubtable pitch maxima,* of double vibrations.

c. According to West, the maximum of double vibrations *in the voice* is in a man's normal speaking pitch, about 128 d. v.;

[8] See J. Richard Ewald, "Zur Konstruktion von Polsterpfeifen," in Pflüger's *Archiv* 152, 1913, 171-187, and Franz Wethlo, "Versuche mit Polsterpfeifen," Passow-Schaefer's *Beiträge* 6, 1913, 268-280.

[9] See Tonndorf, "Die Mechanik bei der Stimmlippenschwingung und beim Schnarchen," *Zeitschrift für Hals-, Nasen, und Ohrenheilkunde* 12, 1925, 241.

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at 256 d. v. only the fundamental and not the octave is amplified; in women's and children's voices no double vibrations occur.—Max Giesswein found in 1925[11] that the "bronchial tree," including the trachea up to the glottis, has a considerable resonance with, on an average, 128 d. v. as its fundamental, *and* 256 *d. v. as its first and only overtone,* and this equally for both sexes. This means that at 128 d. v., in an adult man's normal speaking range, besides the fundamental the octave must be amplified and double humps must occur, but at 256 d. v., in a woman's normal speaking range, only the fundamental is amplified and no double humps can occur. *This is exactly what was to be accounted for.*

§10

OUR CONCLUSIONS ARE:

1. The vocal cords are not flat bands but oblique lips.

2. These vibrators should be called "voice lips" rather than "vocal bands."

3. The vibrations of the voice lips are in phase and not in opposite phase.

4. The vibrations of the voice lips are total and not nodal.

5. The voice lips do not simply vibrate up and down but at the same time separate and approach sidewise by compression and expansion.

6. In a man's normal speaking range and timbre ("open tone") the voice lips make striking and no free vibrations.

7. The glottis is opened once, and not twice, during one full vibration of the voice lips.

8. The air vibration is caused by the rhythmical changes in the width of the glottis and not by the impact of the surfaces of the voice lips.

9. Only *one* tone is produced by the combined action of the voice lips, and not two different tones which might interact and be selected.

10. It is not secondarily, by resonance of the pharynx or larynx, but originally that the perceived tone has the same fundamental as the vibration of the voice lips.

11. The double vibrations of *men's* Adam's apples and voices

[11] Max Giesswein, "Die Resonanzbeziehungen zwischen Stimme und Brustorganen," Passow-Schaefer's *Beiträge* 22, 1925, 82-120.

are produced not by addition of the movements of the two voice lips but chiefly by the resonance of the first and only overtone of his bronchial tree, and secondarily, perhaps, by the mechanism of "open tones."

12. In women's and children's voices the double vibrations do not occur because their normal speaking pitch is as high as the first overtone of their bronchial tree, and this resonator does not respond with any higher overtone.

13. The conclusions 3-10, and most probably also 11, are also true for the action of the mouth lips in brass wind instruments.

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METHODS OF MEMORIZATION FOR THE SPEAKER AND READER

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WHEN we approach the subject of memory, we face one of the profoundest mysteries in the larger mystery of consciousness. Psychologists, from Aristotle to James, have wrestled with the question; only to confess, as James does "that no glimmer of explanation of it is yet in sight."[1] Whether we regard memory as "that class of psychical states which," according to Spencer, "are in process of being organized ... and disappear when the organization of them is complete"[2] (has become automatic);

[1] William James: *Principles of Psychology* (Vol. 1, Chap. XVI).

[2] Herbert Spencer: *The Principles of Psychology* (Vol. 1, Part IV, Chap. VI).

whether we define it, in the words of James, as "the knowledge of an event, or fact, of which meantime we have not been thinking, with the additional consciousness that we have thought or experienced it before";[3] or whether we adopt the behavioristic conception of memory as "a general term to express the fact that after a period of no practice in certain habits—explicit bodily habits, implicit word habits—the function is not lost, but is retained as a part of the individual's organization, although it may, through disuse, have suffered greater or less impairment";[4]—we arrive at no satisfying solution—only a more clarifying statement of an inexplicable phenomenon. So baffling is its nature, that one is inclined to accept Professor Ladd's frank conclusion that conscious memory is "a spiritual phenomenon, the explanation of which, as arising out of nervous processes and conditions, is not simply undiscovered in fact, but utterly incapable of approach by the imagination."[5]

Yet, simply because we can not comprehend what memory *is*, we are not precluded from ascertaining numerous facts about it, just as ignorance of the real nature of electricity has not prevented us from accumulating a large volume of valuable data concerning that phenomenon. And through deep speculation, careful introspection, and objective experimentation in and out of the laboratory, a considerable amount of reliable information has been collected relative to memory. Moreover, just as electrical knowledge has been utilized in a practical way, so may the data gathered about the faculty of memory be applied to practical ends.

Before entering upon a discussion of how to memorize, there is one question, I feel, which should be satisfactorily answered; i. e., can the faculty of memory be improved? Psychologists are virtually unanimous in the pronouncement that every individual is endowed with a certain amount of native or "brute" retentiveness which no amount of training can augment. With this conclusion,

[3] *Op. cit.* In the definition above James is defining memory proper, or secondary memory. Primary, or elementary memory, is memory of something *just* past and not yet "cut off in consciousness."

[4] John B. Watson: *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist.* (Chap. VIII).

[5] George T. Ladd: *Elements of Physiological Psychology* (Part II, Chap. X).

I have no inclination to join issue. But native retentiveness is not the sole, if even the most important, intrinsic factor in determing one's power of memory. In the first place, retention is only one phase of the whole process of memorization. Preceding it there is acquisition, and following it there is recall. Upon these two phases, Walter Dill Scott,[6] says training has its effect even though it cannot alter one's native retentiveness. This conclusion, however, seems to me warranted neither by reason nor by fact, and is at total variance with the following statement of Professor Watson: "From the standpoint of acquisition it seems to be true that there is a certain coefficient of commitment for each individual which for that individual remains almost permanent."[7] Certainly, if one's native retentiveness is a fixed quantity, it is reasonable to believe that one's native power of acquisition and one's native ability to recall are fixed quantities. The fact of real significance is that *one's native ability in the three phases of memorization is not necessarily the same in all.* In other words, a mediocre ability to retain may be accompanied by an exceptional ability to recall or to acquire. Now in the second place, taking it as an established fact that an individual's abilities in the three phases of memorization are forever constant, there are certain intrinsic factors which are all powerful in determining whether the mechanism for memory with which a person is endowed functions well or ill, regardless of the inherent capacity of that mechanism. No one would dispute that the motor in a Packard is superior to that in a Ford; but the inherently superior motor may become practically inferior if the former, for instance, is not fed a good grade of gasoline or oil, or if its carburetor is in maladjustment. So it is with the human mechanism for memory—the nature of the material to be memorized, the methods by which it is assimilated, the physical and mental condition of the individual, and his environment, are all factors that have a pronounced effect on the efficiency with which the memory mechanism functions. *And they are factors over which the individual has control.* Thus, we answer the question originally propounded: No, the amount of one's native capacity in any of the phases of memorization cannot be improved;

[6] Walter Dill Scott: *The Psychology of Public Speaking* (Chap. XIV).

[7] *Op. cit.* (Chap. IX). Ebbinghaus' experiments confirm this view says Watson.

but yes, the efficiency with which that capacity can function can be improved.[8]

Let no one be led to conclude from the knowledge of prodigious feats of memory, such as that accredited to Seneca of being able to repeat in order two thousand names merely read to him, that memory power is solely hereditary; or let no one be disturbed by the seemingly gloomy assertion of James: "No amount of culture would seem capable of modifying a man's general retentiveness. This is a physiological quality, given once for all with his organization, and which he can never hope to change."[9] Rather, let one stop to realize the tremendous significance of this statement of James, occurring a page or two further on: "All improvement of memory consists, then, in the improvement of one's habitual methods of recording facts"; and let one dwell on the cheerful observation of Professor Seashore,[10] that nature provides all of us with a far greater memory capacity than is ever utilized.

A number of years ago W. A. Neilson, then of Harvard, contributed to *The English Journal*[11] an article on memory, in which he decried classroom results of mere memory work which does not demand that students see in proper relations the facts they remember. He further attacked exercises for mere memory training, stating that "since we can study nothing without exercising memory, it is perfectly safe to ignore it." While one sympathizes with President Neilson's attempt to combat a real evil, slight reflection will show both his complaints misdirected—the first because it is an emphatic declaration of one of the chief principles of memorization;[12] the second because it entirely overlooks the fact that no

[8] The subsidiary question as to whether memory training in one field is transferred to another is answered in the light of the above discussion. There being reliable principles to follow in the memorizing of all sorts of material, it is obvious that, if one masters a principle while working in one field, he will be in a position to apply that principle in a new field. The weight of authority very decidedly supports the view that memory training is transferred.

[9] *Op. cit.*

[10] Carl E. Seashore: *Introduction to Psychology* (Chap. XVIII).

[11] W. A. Neilson: "The Curse of Memory": *The English Journal* (Vol. VI. No. 2, Feb., 1917).

[12] Namely, that any newly ascertained fact or facts, to be remembered most effectively, must not be put away in one's mind as isolated bits of knowledge, but assimilated in logical connection with previously acquired facts.

amount of practice in memorizing any material, unless guided by sound principles, will appreciably increase one's efficiency in memorization. I am not at all favorable to exercises whose sole object is the improvement of memory; I have not a commendable word for rote memory,[13] and I regard most so-called "mnemonic systems" as pure charlatanism. I simply believe that all memory work, whether it be in arithmetic, in political science, or in public speaking, should be intelligently directed according to principles theoretically or experimentally sound.

I trust no reader will accept the principles herein set forth as a "system" in memory culture. The principles advocated simply represent practical conclusions drawn from theoretical conceptions of memory and from the results of psychological experiments. Many are of long standing, some are new; some may be taken as firmly established, others as reasonable speculations worthy of trial; some can be utilized by everyone, others will be adapted only to certain individuals. At most, I hope that some of the principles outlined may serve as helpful suggestions to those who find difficulty in memorizing, it being realized that to a considerable extent every person will have to work out his own individual methods.

The problem of memorization confronts one in undertaking any form of public address. Some might except impromptu speaking and reading entirely from a manuscript; but the ability to recall items of one's knowledge on the spur of the moment is obviously a matter of memory, as is likewise the ability to keep in mind the complete thought in a manuscript, which is essential in effective reading therefrom. However, the problem is acute in neither of these types of speech; and I think it should be emphasized at this point that, to whatever extent a manuscript may be used wholly or partially without detracting from the effectiveness of the delivery, to that extent, *but to that extent only*, it should be used. Commitment "to heart" is a burdensome task to be undertaken only when the occasion imperatively demands. Rôles in plays must be memorized completely, but much poetry and many interpretative readings can be given as effectively with

[13] Repetition of words as a means of learning them, with little attention to the sense.

partial memorization as with complete. When one attempts to deliver a speech of his own composition, however, I believe the use of a manuscript will be objectionable to most auditors, and even the use of a few notes to a lesser degree. Audiences are not averse to hearing a speaker read from a paper or book the words and thoughts of another, but they usually find the reading of an original speech offensive or, at least, somewhat distasteful. Bishop Whately explains this fact on the grounds that the attention and interest of those listening "are the more excited by their sympathy with one whom they perceive to be carried forward solely by his own unaided and unremitted efforts, without having any book to refer to; they view him as a swimmer supported by his own constant exertions; and in every such case, if the feat be well accomplished, the surmounting of the difficulty affords great gratification."[14] B. M. Bautain, wrote in 1859: "Nothing so thoroughly freezes the oratorical flow as to consult those wretched notes; nothing is so inimical to the prestige of eloquence; it forthwith brings down to the common earth both the speaker and his audience."[15] This view, I believe, will be concurred in by the majority of teachers of speech.[16] Hence, the task of memorization can not be successfully avoided by the general public speaker through the use of a manuscript, but can only be minimized to a certain extent through the adoption of the extempore method, and extemporaneous speaking involves no small amount of memory work.

Three distinct phases are presented in the problem of memorization. These are:

(1). The Organization of Material.
(2). The Acquisition of Material.
(3). The Recollection of Material.

It is obvious that the first phase drops from the problem when the speaker is concerned with material other than that of his own composition, for such material he must take as he finds it. The three phases will be dealt with in the order named.

[14] Richard Whately: *Elements of Rhetoric* (Part IV, Chap. III).
[15] B. M. Bautain: *The Art of Extempore Speaking* (Chap. XVI).
[16] Some experimental investigation might profitably be undertaken on this question.

THE ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL

I am convinced that fully half of the task of memorization may be accomplished through proper organization of material. Experiments conducted with sense material and with organized and unorganized material justify this assertion. Ebbinghaus,[17] for instance, found that it takes about one-tenth as much practice to learn sense material as nonsense material. Also, the forgetting curve has a much less rapid decline with sense material. As a result of their experiments, Donald Laird, Herman Remmers, and Lloyd Peterson concluded that (a) materials to be learned should be classified in some orderly or logical fashion; (b) on the whole it seems probable that increasing benefit is derived from organized presentation with increasing meaningfulness of the material; (c) the balance in favor of organized presentation becomes greater with delayed recall; and (d) the mental life spontaneously attempts some sort of an organization of material presented to it.[18] It would seem clear that the more closely one's material approaches perfection in its organization, the more readily can it be memorized.

In constructing a speech, one's constant aim should be to have in the end a very compact whole, the parts of which are so closely connected that the recollection of any single part will inevitably set the mind running forward to subsequent parts or backward to antecedent parts. Careful adherence to the suggestions enumerated below will procure the desired organization.[19]

1. Have logical relationships.

Great thinkers—as Bacon, Macaulay, Pascal, or Darwin—have usually possessed prodigious memories, because of their ready ability to organize the information they acquired into a systematic scheme. To such minds a newly acquired fact could not long remain isolated from previously acquired knowledge, but almost immediately would become hooked up with a multitude of causes,

[17] Noted from John B. Watson: *Op. cit.* (Chap. IX).

[18] Donald A. Laird, Herman Remmers, and Lloyd J. Peterson: "An Experimental Study of the Influence of Organization of Material for Memorizing upon Its Retention:" *Journal of Experimental Psychology* (Vol. VI, No. 1, Feb., 1923).

[19] None of the suggestions offered involves a consequent violation of any principles of rules of rhetorical composition. In fact, most of them might serve as principles of composition as well as aids to memory.

effects, associations, comparisons, contrasts, and so on; then, the particular fact, having been placed in its logical pigeon-hole, could be banished from the conscious activity for any length of time but could be recalled whenever desired. "If a new fact is seen to be similar to something already known, if the cause of the fact and its consequences are seen, it ordinarily takes no further effort to commit it to memory."[20] Some people are more logically-minded than others, yet even the poorest thinking has so much of logic in it that no one can fail to facilitate the memorizing of a bit of material, a group of facts, or a speech by a concerted effort to bring all statements and ideas into logical relationships with other statements and ideas. Both in preparing the outline of a speech and in writing out the full speech from an outline or brief, must great care be taken not to have illogical relationships. It should be noted, too, that a logical relationship does not necessarily entail a causal one. Let us consider the following segments of outlines for purposes of exemplification:

(A)

2. The man needs sympathy
   a. He has lost his son
   b. Sympathy is a human attribute

(B)	(C)
2. The shape of the house	2. The properties of hydrogen
a. Is square	a. Is explosive
b. Has green roof	b. Is an element of water

In each of the above cases, a logical relationship exists between 2 and 'a' and an illogical relationship exists between 2 and 'b'. Only (A) involves a causal relationship. In each case the recollection of 2 will more or less readily bring to mind 'a', but not nearly so readily 'b'. Hence the importance of logical relationships in the problem of memorizing outline material. I have looked over hundreds of student outlines that were lacking in this essential respect, and I never wonder when the composers of such outlines flounder around on the platform, forget completely, or register the complaint, "I can't remember my outline." My reply is: "Make it strictly logical, and you will find it difficult to forget it."

2. Have strict unity.

[20] Walter Dill Scott: *Op. cit.* (Chap. XIV).

Unity is that quality about a thing which enables us to grasp it as a whole. A house has unity if we can easily view it as a whole rather than see it section by section. A number of objects or ideas can be unified only by making them all parts of a larger object or concept.[21] For example, I imagine a cat, a lion, and a cougar; I can immediately unify them by bringing all under a larger concept: feline animals. At random, now, I look about me and select the objects: trees, steam-pipe, bookcase. Can I unify them? Possibly, but it will take considerable thinking. The importance of this synthetic process is tremendous in facilitating the task of memorization. I do not have to remember cat, lion, and cougar separately, but to retain the three need only to remember the single thing, feline animals. But until I discover a unifying factors, I have three tasks in remembering trees, steam-pipe, and bookcase. So, in speech construction, it is essential to have unity if the speech is to be easily retained. We may say a speech has strict unity if it at all times seems directed towards a single definite end. This definite end or central idea becomes the starting point in our recall process; and, providing logical relations exist between all the points of the speech, then recall of the central idea inevitably tends to recall the main divisions of the theme, and the recall of any main division in turn tends to recall the subdivisions under it. In the following diagrammatical outline:

A. ----------
  1. ----------
    a. ----------
    b. ----------
  2. ----------
  3. ----------
B. ----------
  1. ----------
  2. ----------

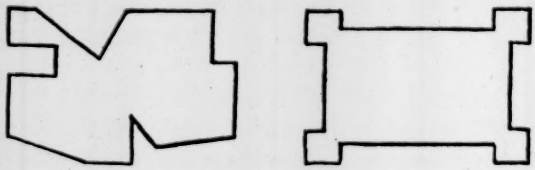
recollection of the central idea recalls A and B; recollection of A recalls 1, 2, and 3 under A; and recollection of 1 recalls 'a' and 'b' under 1. However, this process of recall occurs only when all

[21] "In all cases, what is of the first importance is to see all the ideas in a single idea, in order to keep up the unity of the subject." B. M. Bautain: *Op. cit.*

points are true, logical divisions of the points under which they come.

3. Have symmetrical structure.

Efforts directed towards securing logical relationships and unity will invariably tend to produce an outline that is symmetrical in structure; and, of course, the symmetry of the outline will be carried over into the completed speech. This symmetry gained through logical and unified arrangement of material is a distinct aid in memorizing the speech for there is no question as to the greater ease with which symmetrical objects, as contrasted with unsymmetrical ones, can be recalled. Take a glance of a few seconds at the figures below and then immediately or twenty-four hours later try to reproduce them.



Most people will readily be able to reproduce the one on the right, but rarely will anyone be found able to make a reproduction of the other. The same principle of symmetry operates to make an outline or a speech more easily remembered. In a symmetrical outline all points of equal rank must be of the same category. Note the following examples of groups of points placed in equal rank:

(A)	(C)
1. Nature of Boy Scout movement	1. Causes of war
2. Statistics about Boy Scout movement	2. Methods of war
3. Boy Scout movement in my town	3. Results of war
(B)	(D)
1. Materials used in experiment	1. Work as writer
2. Methods employed in experiment	2. Work as educator
3. Results obtained in experiment	3. Work as statesman

(A) affords an example of points placed in equal rank but clearly not of the same category. On the other hand, the points in (D) are obviously of the same category. (B) and (C) are examples of points not strictly of the same category but approaching more closely the situation in (D) than in (A). Of the two, (C) is probably nearer to (D) than (B) is. Of the four groups (A) will be

retained with the greatest difficulty and (D) with the least. It is recognized that such symmetrical grouping as represented by (D) can not always be secured, and that groupings such as (B) and (C) are often necessary; but such as (A) can and should be avoided always. Analytical and synthetical thinking will do it. In addition to the advantage gained by this symmetry in substance, there are, for purposes of memorization, advantages to be obtained from symmetry in form, or statement, of points, especially when the speaker is relying solely on a memorized outline. Let points of equal rank be stated with uniform, or parallel phraseology. To illustrate, the points of the group marked (A) below are very non-uniform in statement, those of group (B) have more uniformity, while those of group (C) are absolutely parallel in their phrasing. The points are strictly of the same category, it should be noted, in each example.

(A)

1. Unions benefit their members
2. All workmen are helped by organized labor
2. All workmen are helped by organized labor
3. Public advantages of the closed shop

(B)

1. Benefits of union to members
2. Benefits to all labor
3. Advantages to public

(C)

1. The benefits of the union to its members
2. The benefits of the union to all laborers
3. The benefits of the union to the public

Of the three groups, (C) will be the most readily memorized and (A) the least. Of course, this rigid uniformity recommended for the outline, which makes the outline very mechanical in its structure, will not be carried over into the completed composition as it would be fatal to the beauty of the latter. But an outline is not a thing of beauty. Rather it is like the human skeleton or the steel framework of a building. Either is ugly in its nakedness, yet when the former is clothed in flesh or the latter dressed with stone, you have a thing of beauty. And in the main it is the ugly understructure that contributes the beauty inhering in unity, form, shape, coherence, and so forth.

4. Have rhythmical composition.

Somewhat allied to symmetry is the quality of rhythm. One might naturally assume that rhythm is a helpful factor in memorizing, and experiments substantiate the assumption.[22] Meumann, a German professor who made an extensive experimental investigation of the economy and technique of memory, has this to say: "The rhythmic recurrence of impressions and ideas tends to reinforce their retention. When words or tones are repeated in rhythm, they are much more durably imprinted upon consciousness."[23] No doubt rhyme is also very helpful, but, of course, we can not avail ourselves of this aid in prose compositions. However, the best examples of rhetorical prose do reveal a marked rhythm.[24] The speeches of Bryan afford striking illustrations. Thus, if one endeavors to inject the quality of rhythm into his rhetorical prose, he will at the same time be making its memorization an easier task.

5. Have easy sequences.

Sequences may be of a physical nature as those of time, such as of appearance or occurence, or as those of space, such as of proximity, contiguity, or dimension; or they may be of a non-physical nature as those of familiarity, comprehension, progress, effect, or importance. A well defined sequence is like a thread upon which our thoughts may be strung and held together. In an outline any group of points of equal rank should be listed in a definite sequence if possible. Due to the visual images aroused, physical sequences are generally more serviceable in aiding memorization than non-physical ones. Frequently, though, physical sequences are not available or are undesirable as a matter of good composition.

6. Have good transitions.

Words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs of transition form bridges, or connecting links, between thoughts; and careful atten-

[22] For instance, it has been found that numbers given rhythmically were better retained than those with no rhythm. Henry Foster Adams: "A Note on the Effect of Rhythm on Memory": *The Psychological Review* (Vol. XXII, No. 4, July, 1915).

[23] E. Meumann: *The Psychology of Learning* (Chap. I).

[24] In speaking of rhythm in prose, a distinction between rhythm and metre should be kept in mind. Prose rhythm is a noticeable repetition of accent patterns, but without the exactness and rigidity that obtain in verse.

tion to these facilitates the task of memorization. For example, if the second of two consecutive sentences can appropriately commence with or contain such a word as "moreover," "however," or "therefore," it will be more readily called to mind by thought of the first. Also, a succeeding paragraph will be remembered more easily if it is preceded by a sentence or paragraph of transition, in which there is a definite allusion to the thought of the immediately preceding paragraph coupled with an intimation of the thought in the paragraph following. The *summary (of the preceding)-introduction (of the succeeding)* type of transition paragraph is one often found in speeches; and it is especially effective for purposes of memorization. The importance of good transitions is impressed upon us by the estimation of Binet and Henri[25] that memory for connected sentences is approximately twenty-five times as good as memory for disconnected ones.

7. Have frequent echoes.

An echo is the repetition, at an interval or intervals, of a word or expression, or the content of either in synonomous phraseology. The words "my parents" might be echoed in a later sentence by the words "my father and mother." Or, the expression "a strong obligation rests upon me" might be echoed by the later phrase "my supreme duty," and again further on by the words "it is a debt to be discharged." In writing we avoid the use of the same word very often for the sake of variety; but echoes, as just exemplified, obviously inhere in all forms of composition. Because they represent common bonds between sentences or paragraphs, they are very effective in helping one to keep his speech in mind. A variation of the echo is the cumulative climax, in which succeeding clauses or sentences are introduced by the same word or phrase. Once a person is launched into the recital of such a climax, there is little likelihood of his forgetting.

8. Have vivid passages.

"We remember by that which is most discriminable."[26] A

[25] Noted from Sarah D. Mackay Austin: "A Study in Logical Memory": *The American Journal of Psychology* (Vol. XXXII, No. 3, July 1921).

[26] Harvey Andrew Peterson: "On the Influence of Complexity and Dissimilarity in Memory": *Psychological Monographs of the Psychological Review* (Vol. XII, No. 2, Nov., 1907).

gentleman opens his closet to take down his business suit; he distinguishes it probably by its color or cloth-pattern—not likely by its shape or texture. Similarly, a rule is remembered by an example thereof. Carrying the same principle into composition, we should expect to find it easier to recall concrete statements, specific instances, startling facts, striking metaphors, and so forth, than to remember abstract statements, sentences of generalized thought, or even lines of reasoning. And such is the case. Hence, it is wise to have passages of a vivid character liberally interspersed throughout a speech. They are like red flags of danger—not easily overlooked. They give the speaker something to 'hang on to.'' In case he flounders on the platform, if one of them is close at hand, he can clutch it and save himself from disaster.

ACQUISITION OF MATERIAL

In approaching the second phase of the problem of memorization, there are two general suggestions that should be borne in mind: (a) keep in good health[27] and (b) keep the mind active. An unhealthy body and a lazy mentality insure a sluggish memory. Proper nutrition, lack of fatigue, ample blood circulation, and good quality of the blood are all factors that contribute to the efficiency of memory.[28] This is demonstrated by the action of certain drugs that affect beneficially or detrimentally the functioning of the memory, through their effect upon one or more of the above factors. Any beneficient effects from drugs, of course, are but temporary and are not to be sought. The importance of an active mind can not be better emphasized than by observation of the fact that those who possess the best memories are those constantly engaged in active mental labor. With the two general considerations as to physical health and mental activity, respectively, noted above, in mind, we may now proceed to some specific suggestions.

1. Commence when fresh.

So obvious a rule for all mental activity scarcely needs any elaboration. When one is too exhausted to think, he can not hope

[27] For an excellent discussion of the importance of health to an efficient memory, the reader is referred to Martin L. Holbrook: *How to Strengthen the Memory.*

[28] Spencer states that "highly nervous persons in whom the action of the heart is greatly lowered, habitually complain of loss of memory." Noted from Martin L. Holbrook: *Ibid.*

to memorize effectively as memorization means the formulation of numerous associations which is essentially thinking.

2. Facilitate concentration.

Select an environment that affords little distraction. The presence of any stimulus to which the organism is not negatively adapted tends to prevent effective concentration. Disturbing noises or objects that excite the eye make the task of concentration especially difficult. A quiet, simply furnished room affords the proper environment. For some a quite spot out of doors may prove advantageous.

3. Put yourself into spirit of material.

One of the chief factors in retention is intensity of interest. It has long been said, and with absolute truth, that we remember those things in which we are interested. Unfortunately interest in a thing is not for the most part a matter of personal volition. Hence, the task of memorization is made proportionately more or less difficult by the amount of natural interest we have in the material to be memorized. Yet it is not impossible for one's initial interest to be augmented by a conscious effort of the will; and, when necessary, this must be done to secure effective memorization. When one is memorizing something he has written himself, sufficient natural interest will usually be present; but when one is committing to memory the composition of another, added interest may have to be generated. In that case one should endeavor to feel as though one were the author of the words. As Professor Winans says, "make the thought your thought, the words your words."[29] Seek also to feel the emotions that underlie the content of the material.

4. Practice as though before an audience.

If by imagination you can mentally place yourself in the real situation in which you ultimately intend to be, it will be very helpful. First, it will enable you to get into the spirit of whatever you are memorizing; second, it will facilitate recall when you stand before the actual audience since your real situation is analogous to that in which you have practiced and many associations will have been established in connection with the latter that will

[29] James Albert Winans: *Public Speaking* (Chap. XIV). A very good scheme for the study of selections is outlined in this chapter.

readily connect with the real situation. The value of this suggestion is demonstrated in the common experience of a person succeeding in recalling a former idea only by returning to the particular spot where-at he knows he became possessed of the idea.

5. Intend to retain.

The value of a definite intention to retain what you undertake to memorize probably lies in the influence of such an intention upon the efforts you put forth. I doubt very much whether its value extends further than this.[30] Yet is is interesting to note how quickly one forgets something learned *temporarily* as soon as the occasion for his remembering it has passed.

6. Employ various kinds of imagery.

Some people are eye-minded, some ear-minded, and still others are muscle-minded. Those of the first group retain better what they see, those of the second what they hear, and those of the third what they feel kinaesthetically. Obviously, one should employ most that type of imagery with which he is most abundantly endowed. However, in as much as the retention of any fact is made more certain as the number of associations formulated about it is increased, it is wise to employ all types of imagery. If one is memorizing an account of a battle, he should try to picture the scene of the engagement—the natural objects as trees, streams, and hills; and the soldiers, the horses, the guns, and so forth. At the same time, he should try to hear the boom of the cannons, the thud of horses' feet, the shouting, cursing, and groaning of men, the clanking of swords, and the general turmoil. And also, though a more difficult task because feeling is a still more subjective process, he should try to feel the pains, discomforts, stresses, contacts, and movements of the men; and even the general surging movements of the battle. Muscular and kinaesthetic imagery, especially, begets in one the emotional responses. Now, it is possible to employ visual, auditory, and motile imagery to the end of simply remembering the words. One may establish in his mind a picture of the

[30] Certain investigators discovered from their experiments that "the intent to learn for permanent retention really brings about the desired end in the case of learning a vocabulary." F. P. Boswell and W. S. Foster: "On Memorizing with the Intention Permanently to Retain": *The* American Journal of Psychology (Vol. XXVII, No. 3, July, 1916).

printed page; he may read aloud[31] and get an auditory image of the sounds of which the words consist; or he may exaggerate the enunciation of the words so as to create a strong kinaesthetic image of the action of creating the sounds, and may walk about or write out the words to procure still other muscular associations. All such aids, however, are mechanical ones, and should be used with caution. All, I believe, may be used advantageously and should be made use of, but they should be subordinated to and used only in conjunction with the visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic imagery that carries with it the thought and emotions of the words to be remembered.[32]

7. Go over material slowly.

Fixing a thing in one's mind is essentially a matter of establishing a series of neural connections, or patterns, to be utilized at a later time. The strength of the pattern depends upon a number of factors. Intensity of the stimulus is one. Duration is another. Every stimulus must have an extensity in time, and if that extensity is too brief, there may occur no reaction at all; also, other factors being equal, the stimulation of greatest duration will create the most lasting impression. The frequently heard admonition, "Speak slowly so as to let your words sink in," has real psychological import. So, in memorizing we should go slowly

[31] Reading aloud as an aid to memory should not be confused with reading aloud to clarify thought.

[32] It is interesting to note that writers who decry the use of mnemonic schemes involving bizarre associations frequently endorse the aids which I have described as mechanical. Yet is it less mechanical to remember the word "cow" by its position on a piece of paper than to remember it by having a mental cow leap over a mental moon? Professor Scott, in his excellent book referred to heretofore, disparages the use of the device advocated by Cicero and Quintilian of associating the parts of one's speech with the parts of a house and the furnishings; yet he offers no objection to an eye-minded person remembering words by their position and appearance on a sheet of paper. If either can be less mechanical than the other, is it not the former which at least embodies the idea of well organized structure, a conception about his speech which every speaker should have? I feel that ingenious, mechanical devices may often be very serviceable and quite unobjectionable—as for example, in remembering the officers of the president's cabinet by the word "St. Wapnia" (not now appropriate). The objection to these devices becomes real only when the thought and emotions of the words are in danger of being lost.

enough to allow the words and their significance to "sink in." Just how slowly one should proceed is not possible to say, but certainly one's rate should be considerably less than the maximum that allows for comprehension. Also, one may on occasions labor under arbitrary time limits. From her study in memorizing, Eleanor Gamble makes the observation that "to learn a single short series of any kind in a short time, one should repeat it as rapidly as one can with complete apprehension; but to learn long series and *to learn to learn anything*, one should repeat at a rate much slower than that which just allows the perfect apprehension of the material to be learned—at a rate four or five times as slow as this maximum."[33]

8. Work at intervals.

Unless circumstances make it necessary to do otherwise, one should not attempt to memorize a selection of any great length at one time. The efficiency of any mental process begins to decrease as soon as noticeable fatigue sets in. It has been amply demonstrated that the total number of repetitions required to retain and recall effectively is materially reduced by periodic efforts. Sarah Austin, in a series of experiments, reached this conclusion: "Divided repetitions, within limits, prove more effective than cumulative repetitions with logical material as well as with nonsense syllables. The greater value of distributed repetitions is particularly noticeable when material is tested two and four weeks after learning."[34] Naturally there is a maximum time limit between periodic efforts to go beyond which would mean a decreased ability in retention and recall. Professor Scott, in his work "*The Psychology of Public Speaking*[35] says that interruptions of a day or two will reduce the number of repetitions necessary to retain, will lengthen the time of retention, and increase the readiness of recall. Very likely the periodicity of one's efforts should be governed by the state of his general health and the

[33] Eleanor A. McC. Gamble: "A Study in Memorizing Various Materials by the Reconstruction Method": *Psychological Monographs of the Psychological Review* (Vol. X, No. 4, Sept., 1909).

[34] Sarah D. Mackay Austin: "*Op. cit.* Note the further finding of the investigator: "For immediate recall, cumulative repetitions prove as effective as repetitions that are distributed."

[35] *Op. cit.* (Chap. XIV).

extent of his other labors. But there can be no doubt that distribution of effort is very advantageous.

9. Seek the thought primarily.

Investigators of memorization of logical material have found that ideas are retained rather than the original words. This is due to the vastly greater number of associations that can be formulated about ideas than about words. In memorizing, then, give chief attention to the thought. If one is memorizing his own material, he will necessarily have the thought fully in mind. When trying to remember that of another, he should carefully analyze the material to get every possible bit of meaning out of it.

10. Think over material.

As has been observed before, thinking about a fact involves the creation of new associations. As the idea to be memorized is linked up to one old, established idea after another, it inevitably becomes more fixed and secure in your memory.[36] Nothing is more imperative, I believe, than intensive thinking to insure effective retention.

11. Repeat actively.

James joints out in his *Principles of Psychology* that a deeper impression is made by active repetition than by passive. By active repetition he means repetition accompanied by effort to recall. So, in memorizing we should keep our eyes off the printed page as much as possible. More headway is gained in getting through a paragraph without boosting ourselves along by a glance now and then at the words even though we hesitate and stumble and consume a great deal more time. The value of active repetition may be explained in this way: we all remember far better ideas that are our own or seem to be; and in recalling an idea of another by mental exertion, we in a sense make it our own.

[36] I trust that I shall not be understood to convey the impression that ideas or thoughts can be stored in the mind as grain in a warehouse, to be hauled forth at will. There was a time when such a conception was quite universally held. But modern psychology has exploded that conception. In terms of neurological activity, or behavior, essentially the same thing happens in thinking of an idea formerly thought of as in thinking of a new idea. The only difference is that a so-called new idea has to cut a new neural path, while the old may follow the imprint it formerly left unless time has obliterated it. In using expressions that indicate that ideas are stored away, I am indulging in commonly used terms that are not without practical significance.

12. Use whole or part method as found better individually.

The so-called "whole method" of learning, in which the entire selection to be memorized is repeatedly gone through from beginning to end, is more frequently recommended than the "part method," in which portions of the whole are learned one at a time. Most textbooks have advocated the whole method. Yet neither experiments nor reason supports the complete adoption of this method. Professor Meumann makes this rather dogmatic and sweeping assertion: "We may therefore regard the following general result as established: for adults and children it is more advantageous and it is psychologicaly and pedagogically more appropriate to learn any sort of material as a whole than to break it up into parts."[37] The findings of W. H. Pyle and J. C. Snyder,[38] published in 1911, substantiate Meumann's position. Subsequent investigators, however, have been led to opposite conclusions by their experiments. L. A. Pechstein, for example, claims (a) that all the part methods prove superior to the whole method both for maze learning and certain nonsensical syllables; (b) that the progressive part method wherein each new section is learned as a unit and added at once to the earlier learned units is consistently the most efficient; and (c) that motor learning and verbatim learning are governed in the main by the same laws of learning.[39] He also asserts that successive units are mastered with increasing ease, and that diminishing returns are avoided as the material is lengthened. Hence, according to Pechstein, the part method is superior because it utilizes the item of transfer and avoids diminishing returns; also, because the whole method secures the complete utilization of the principles of elimination and mechanization. Another investigator, H. B. Reed,[40] contends that a care-

[37] E. Meumann: *Op. cit.* (Chap. VI).

[38] W. H. Pyle and J. C. Snyder: "The Most Economical Unit for Committing to Memory": *The Journal of Educational Psychology* (Vol. II, No. 3, Mar., 1911).

[39] L. A. Pechstein: "Whole Versus Part Methods in Learning Nonsensical Syllables": *The Journal of Educational Psychology* (Vol. IX, No. 7, Sept., 1918). The criteria used by Pechstein were trials, errors, and time.

[40] H. B. Reed: "Part and Whole Methods of Learning": *The Journal of Educational Psychology* (Vol. XV, No. 2, Feb., 1924). But see answer to Reed by Warner Brown in which the latter lists the following investi-

ful study of the facts reveals a majority of experiments to be in favor of the part method, despite the numerous assertions of the superiority of the whole method in textbooks of pedagogy and psychology. Reed claims the progressive part method to be the best, the part method next, and the whole method the least effective. He points out that the part method is superior in that it adjusts the material more adequately to the learner's span of attention. He adds, however, that in the last analysis the most economical unit is a question for the individual learner; but he finds that most individuals profit by the use of the part method. That to a great extent it is a matter for each individual to discover for himself what is his most economical unit, seems to me the common sense view. I venture to say also that nine people out of ten will find themselves incapable of employing the whole method upon undertaking to remember a passage of any length beyond a dozen or so lines. A happy compromise may be found in the recommendation of Henry J. Watt,[41] who wrote a very valuable treatise on memory many years ago. He advised the use of the whole method for familiar matter, but the part method for unfamiliar matter and long pieces. One final suggestion would be that, when one departs from the whole method because of the length of the selection, he should divide the whole into parts that tend to be self-contained units in themselves.

13. Overlearn material.

To insure perfect recall at a later time, it is essential that we overlearn our material—that is, we must repeat several times after reaching the point of perfect *immediate recall.* As Watson points out, there are three periods of acquisition: (a) the learning period, (b) the no-practice period, and (c) the relearning period.[42] Dur-

gators as supporters of the whole method: Ebert, Meumann, Ephrussi, Lakenan, Larguier des Bancels, Neumann, Pentschew, Pyle, Snyder, and Steffens. Warner Brown: "Whole and Part Methods in Learning": *The Journal of Educational Psychology* (Vol. XV, No. 4, April, 1924). In a later article, however, Reed points out that, with the exception of Lakenan, Neumann, Pyle, Snyder, and Steffens, all of these investigators offered a great deal of data in favor of the part method. H. B. Reed: "A Further Note on the Whole and Part Methods": *The Journal of Educational Psychology* (Vol. XV, No. 9, Dec., 1924). Both Reed and Pechstein used a larger number of subjects than many of the other experimenters.

[41] Henry J. Watt: *The Economy and Training of Memory* (Chap. IV).

[42] *Op. cit.* (Chap. VIII).

ing the second period we are forgetting; viz., the neurological combinations set up in the first period suffer a certain amount of disintegration as certain nerve fibers are appropriated for other combinations. Any attempt to recall is a relearning period; and if we would have the first trial of a relearning period perfect, it is essential that in the previous period of learning we should have gone considerably beyond the perfection point. The forgetting curve tends to make a rapid initial drop, and the drop can only be arrested by overlearning. Undoubtedly you should continue going over your selection without recourse to the printed words "until you have been able to do it many times without any mistake."[43] It is possible to "go stale" in learning (a) if we work too fast or under pressure, (b) if we continue at our task too long or at too frequent intervals, or (c) if our labors thwart other habit systems too much.[44] The best thing to do, when we begin to feel we are making no headway, is to stop and rest.

14. Practice shortly before appearance.

Already we have noted that intensity, duration, and repetition were important factors in determining readiness of recall. Still another factor is recency. Other factors remaining constant, the more recently one of two ideas has been entertained in the mind the more readily it will be recalled. Unless one has his material very, very much over-learned or he is in danger of becoming too fatigued, the speaker or reader will fortify his memory by a final practice just shortly before he goes upon the platform. This final practice need not always be a "word for word" repetition, but may be just a skimming over the speech or reading that takes in only the principal ideas and thoughts. Bautain[45] advises that the speaker, an hour, a half, or a quarter of an hour before he speaks, go over his plan silently, reviewing all its parts with their connections much as a general might seek to gain a view of all his forces from a height just before the battle. I realize that many may take exception to this suggestion. Yet the only valid objection is that undue fatigue may be caused. When this may like-

[43] A. M. Drummond (Compiler): *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools* (Ray K. Immel: "A Note on Memorization for Delivery").

[44] John B. Watson: *Op. cit.* (Chap. VIII).

[45] *Op. cit.*

ly occur, then I would say forego any practice at the last moment; but, as a matter of fact, the final practice will not be very tiring if it has been preceded by a reasonable period of rest, and, too, the final practice may be made with a minimum of physical exertion. The position I am taking is certainly supported by the principle of recency and the forgetting curve.[46] It is a matter of common knowledge that we remember best that which has just happened, and experiments demonstrate that we very quickly forget the bulk of what we observe.

RECOLLECTION OF MATERIAL

If one has organized his material according to the principles enumerated above, and made the acquisition of it in the manner suggested, the recalling of the material on the platform can not prove unduly difficult. However, there are some special aids to facilitate recollection which should be kept in mind.

1. Be in fit condition.

Although a speaker may succeed, by sheer force of will power, in being effective when sorely fatigued, he seldom attains his maximum efficiency. The mind simply rebels if the body is too tired. The lowered mental efficiency due to poor physical condidition shows itself particularly in a reduction of the powers of recollection. Hence, the speaker or reader should aim to guard his rest and diet so as to feel physically fit at the hour he takes the platform.

2. Put aside fear.

Oftentimes people take the platform hoping and praying that they will not forget. Without realizing it, such people are increasing the likelihood of their forgetting by nursing an inhibitory fear. The psychologically sound thing to do is resolutely to refuse to entertain any thoughts concerning the possibility of forgetting. Our memories show a fondness for the honor system as they are less likely to fail us if we trust them.

3. Think while speaking.

Nothing is of so much importance in the process of recollection as thinking. Be mentally alive all the time. If one is me-

[46] According to Ebbinghaus we forget 40% of our present experience after twenty minutes; 50% after thirty minutes; 72% after two days; and 80% after thirty days. Noted from Walter Dill Scott: *Op. cit.* (Chap. XIII).

chanically repeating words and phrases with no attendant realization of their meaning, and suddenly forgets, the result is usually fatal for it will be almost impossible to regain one's bearings. The speaker should concentrate upon the thought of his words just as profoundly as if he were expressing the thought for the first time; and as he proceeds from one idea to another, he should be fully cognizant of just where he is in relation to his whole speech. Usually his mind should be several leaps ahead of his words. As one speaks, he should be in a sense repeating the analytical process he went through originally in the preparation of his material. Having been through the process previously, the repetition of it will be easier; but by going through it as you speak, you keep a tight hold on the organization of your speech. After all, ideas, as Professor Scott says, "are not things, but are mental acts. They are not stored away in memory to be recalled at a later time. A remembered idea is in every case a new creation."[47] The neurological aspects of recollection are certainly not fundamentally different from those of original acquisition. The only difference is that "the mind having created an idea once, is enabled to perform the same process more readily in the future."[48] As a result, the more often an idea is repeated, the less mental activity is required in the process. Ultimately the repetition of an idea may become automatic.[49] What the speaker should strive to do is to avoid letting the repetition of a thought on the platform approach the automatic. He should put forth the same voluntary mental effort in the *re-creation* of his ideas as he did in their original *creation*. While it is true that, if he has greatly over-learned his material, he is not likely to forget even with little mental exertion, it is equally true that the added mental effort will make his recollection more certain and insure against a possible forgetting.[50]

[47] Walter Dill Scott: *Op. cit.* (Chap. XIII).

[48] *Ibid.*

[49] When the automatic stage is reached, the repetition is no longer a matter of memory as remembered acts are accompanied by an awareness of their past presence in the consciousness.

[50] Although the admonition against mechanical repetition is offered here as an aid in insuring recollection, it should not be forgotten that the effectiveness of the speaker is dependent to a great extent upon his being fully aware of the meaning of his words as he utters them. Otherwise, his speaking will inevitably lack that directness which is the *sine qua non* of good speaking.

4. Keep in spirit of material.

Observation of the preceding principle will to a great extent keep one in the spirit of his speech or reading. However, it is essential that one be emotionally as well as intellectually alive to what he is saying. The more wrought up one is over his subject, the more negatively adapted he becomes to those conflicting and inharmonious stimuli which inhibit the desired flow of thought and cause the self-consciousness or mental distraction responsible for forgetting.

5. Be physically active.

Woolbert and Weaver say, "The more you use your whole body in trying to recall something, the better your chance of success."[51] By being bodily active, you are making it possible for the muscular associations previously formed in the process of acquisition to serve you, for if, "in the attempt to recall, you get your body in something of the same position as before, you have a better chance to bring back the past event."[52] The so-called muscle-minded individual should find bodily action especially helpful in recall.

6. Do something when recall fails.

When the inexperienced speaker or reader forgets, he usually stands rigidly motionless and silent. Chance will sometimes rescue him, but generally his mind only grows more panicky. His immobility and silence only make the situation more hopeless for nothing prevents recall so much as doing and saying nothing. Hence, if you forget, do or say something! Walk about; move your hands. Repeat the last few words uttered, or pick up the last important word and coin a new sentence or idea to tide you over. If one just gets into action, he will soon regain the temporary lost thread of thought. If he does not lose his wits, the speaker can very likely make his actions and words virtually unnoticeable to the audience during the interval it takes to get track of his speech.

In closing I wish to re-emphasize that what has been said in this paper is not to be construed as a "system" in memory training, but represents an attempt to set forth a number of suggestions that may prove fruitful to those who encounter considerable diffi-

[51] Charles Henry Woolbert and Andrew Thomas Weaver: *Better Speech* (Chap. VI).

[52] Ibid.

culty when they undertake to memorize a speech or a reading. Throughout I have sought to offer only suggestions that are substantiated by either sound reasoning or experimentation, or by both. As was stated at the beginning, individuals must, to some extent, contrive their own methods of memorization.

While it is true that one's native capacity in any phase of the process of memorization has fixed limits, I am of the firm conviction that, with most individuals, there lies within those limits ample room for tremendous improvement by adoption of a sound procedure in the utilization of the given capacity. Little, it is true, is known about the real nature of memory, but fortunately there is sufficient evidence at hand out of which to build a valid procedural technique.

Lastly, let it be said that training in memory—at least, training of the proper sort—is training in thinking. In the discussion above, I have endeavored to emphasize the importance of intense thinking in all three phases of the task of memorization—in the organization of material, in its acquisition, and in its recollection.

WILL THE ONE-ACT PLAY ENDURE?

LIONEL CROCKER
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A RECENT issue of the New York Times carried the advertising of forty theatres but not one of them listed a one-act play. Up to and including the present time the theatre system of America has discouraged the composition of the one-act play, and managers as a class have steadfastly refused to be persuaded that this interesting type of drama would be welcomed by any considerable proportion of the theatre-going public. Will, in the face of this situation, the one-act play endure?

Playwrights, no more than bricklayers, are going to devote their time to a job that does not pay. The drama is conditioned by the price of pork and beans. A type of play that is seldom or never called for by managers will not often be written. Broadly speaking, there are but three ways that the one-acter can be afforded a professional production. First it may earn an honest

dollar by doing its turn in vaudeville along with trained seals, acrobats, strong men, and song and dance artists. Second, it may keep its author from going hungry by earning royalty in a legitimate theatre as an adjunct to a longer play, either as a curtain raiser or an afterpiece. Third, it is possible to make up an evening's bill by presenting three or four one-acters together.

On a recent theatre program I read the following announcement:

> One-act plays that are really plays and not just sketches are sought by John Pollock, brother of Channing Pollock and the play reader for the Keith-Albee organization. Mr. Pollock is now in Europe and it is understood that he has gone with instructions from the Keith-Albee powers to come to arrangements with Sir James Barrie, George Bernard Shaw, Karel Capek, Ferenc Molnar, Frederick Lonsdale, and others to have them write more one-acters which the two-a-day has come to the conclusion it can use.
>
> The present situation seems to be that there are many players who wish to enter the two-a-day and until now with few exceptions have done so in what is generally termed a vaudeville sketch. These sketches are usually a hotch-potch of gags cut to a pattern and specially designed to show off the particular abilities of the particular star. This practice has not been an unmitigated success.
>
> Real one-acters, such as *The Twelve Pound Look, The Old Lady Shows Her Medals,* and *Half an Hour,* when well played with competent casts, have always enjoyed success with vaudeville audiences. Now the Keith people decide they want more of this sort of one-acter.

What sort of a demand is the legitimate stage making? London's aristocracy dines at eight o'clock. Therefore, it is impossible to raise the curtain on the chief play of the evening before nine o'clock. But, since the pit and the gallery are unreserved, these sections of the house are filled before eight o'clock by people who have often stood in line for hours. Since it is necessary to entertain these humble patrons until the hour when the late diners stroll into their stalls, it is the custom to pacify them with a one-acter. But in the choice of these curtain raisers the managers seem influenced by the depressing sense that only the less important part of the audience will see them. Therefore, seldom are these one-acters any better than the ones doing time in the vaudeville houses in America. Drama structure is determined mainly by the

social habits of the theatre-going public. As Americans dine early enough to get to the theatre by eight-thirty, the one-act play is little used as a curtain raiser in this country.

Who of us has paid three dollars to see an evening of one-act plays? I will wager not many. In England and on the continent such an evening has been tried with fair success. The popularity gives signs of increasing. Except in experimental cases we do not hear much of the evening of one-act plays on the legitimate stage in America. It has proved to be financially successful with Mrs. Clement in her Bijou Theatre in Boston, where, with the coöperation of Mr. Keith, she is producing splendid one-act plays in an artistic two hour program for ten and twenty cents. It seems difficult to teach the average producer the advisability, from the standpoint of mere business, of looking up to the public instead of looking down on them. Why should not an evening of excellent one-act plays acted by Richard Bennet, Walter Hampden, Jane Cowl, Ethel Barrymore, and the others run for a year in New York.

Sixteen years ago, Mr. George Middleton, in *The Dramatic Mirror*, sounded a plea for these little waifs of the stage in which he wondered why managerial wrath is turned against "these children of an author's brain."

> Uncommercial as it may seem, I personally am convinced that for some writers certain ideas can only be externalized in the one-act play form. I do not think such ideas can be successfully elaborated without anemia of action; the full concentrated situation alone frequently compels the inevitable one-act expression. I am speaking more especially, of course, of the serious psychological drama, such as *'Op o' Me Thumb* with its clash through points of view, which, after all, makes the real drama of life; but in a different tone it applies equally to the satirical comedies of *The Twelve Pound Look*, or *The Showing Up of Blanco Posnet*. No one of these three plays could be elaborated successfully. The one-act play, thus, may be said to bear the same relation to the drama as the short story does to the novel, except that it has had little chance. My plea for its more extended use is not to restrict it to any particular genre, either serious or gay but by its encouragement to create a supply which would prompt the most commercial playwrights to themes he could handle *con amore*. Thus many of the nooks and crannies of human nature, and snap-shots of the hidden acreage of life, which grows untold social problems, might be thrust, with one sharp impression, upon an audience. The question is, is there an audience.

To date Middleton's plea seems to have wasted itself on thin air. To add a one-act play to a long one, the manager claims, is a confession of weakness. I was told by the manager of the Rockford Players, a stock company, that he supplemented a bill of Gilbert's *Sweetheart* with a one-act play. Other stock company managers wondered at his daring. Yet could not more of this be done in spite of the fact that precedent is against it? Has the manager the right to complain if the public stays away when it feels the shortness of the play and the length of the entr'act music? Is it not true that a play that has been announced for eight-twenty will actually begin at eight-forty, and after every act much time is wasted in an entr'act. The manager is satisfied if he can contrive to defer the final curtain till a few minutes before eleven. Then he will subsequently state that there is no demand for the one-act play because the public is unwilling to come before eight-twenty and insists on being out at eleven. A glance at old show bills will show what obtained in the past. The drama should not be the luxury it has become, but it should be forever a necessary social commodity. We are contemptuously told that the curtain raiser in England is only for the pit and the cheap-priced seats. For whom then is the drama? Is it not for the occupants of the lowly places who, in the last analysis, make for the play's success? Our galleries are empty today, and may not a little of the explanation lie in this paucity of fare rather than in the moving pictures alone?

The one-act play deserves a better fate than is being meted out to it. The one-act play has been the standard bearer of the modern drama. Breaking away from the stereotyped theatrics, which ruled the stage before its coming, it has experimented and the success of its experiments has encouraged dramatists to embody them in full length plays. Augustus Thomas developed *The Burglar, Alabama, The Harvest Moon,* and *The Copperhead* from one-act plays. Percival Wilde tells us that twenty years ago such plays as O'Neill's *Anna Christie,* Owen Davis' *The Detour,* and Arthur Richman's *Ambush* could not have been produced. The change has been wrought by the one-act play. The one-act play offers itself as a trial balloon to every idea no matter how radical, however notable the departure from the convention of the stage, or however daring the idea is toward the truth.

All this is not surprising when it is realized as Percival Wilde says:

> The one-act play is the material out of which a longer play can be made. Unity is its inspiration, unity is its aim, unity is its soul. Unity is at once its mainspring and its escapement, its motive power and its limitation. The swiftness of exposition, the brevity, the homogeneity of effect which insists that every word contribute toward that effect; these are necessities unknown to the more leisurely three or four acter. The entire first act of the long play may be given up to the narration of what has come before: the one-act play must accomplish this in a few moments. If, in the course of a long play, the interest flags momentarily, little is lost. Should this occur, even for an instant, the one-act play is ruined. A single effect, conveyed powerfully or delicately, or poetically or rudely, or seriously or whimsically according to the character of the effect itself; an instantaneous arrest of attention, a continued grasp, and relinquishment only after the curtain has fallen; this is the goal and the method of the true one-act play.
>
> Unity implies a single major situation and its corollary, a single dominant impression. The one-act play begins often with a strange assortment of characters, motives, themes, what not, grows warmer, begins to glow, to shed light until in the instant of maximum liquidity, the instant in which lives and destinies are quivering upon a single word, thought, or act, the entire play changes powerfully and beautifully before the eyes of the spectators and comes forth in a new and more lasting light.

Now why has the one-act play been ignored except, perhaps, in schools and colleges, which are poor hunting grounds for royalties? It has been said that the one-act play is too short to be of any value. This appears to be the kind of argument that must have been advanced by the advocates of the oration of an hour's length and the long story against the short speech and the short story. The idea that value is associated with bigness or complexity has been exploded long ago. Is not the tendency of our age toward simplicity and brevity? It is far easier to write at length than to compress. The advocate of the one-acter does not mean to say that his ward is any better or worse than the longer drama, he simply maintains that it is another type and deserves to stand as such.

Let us consider another objection that has been made to the

one-act play. The question is asked: Do they justify themselves as worth-while studies of human life? Surely a one-act play cannot be written any more than can the longer play without adequate first-hand knowledge of life. They permit, as Middleton has pointed out, additional traits and niches of human character to be portrayed as an end in themselves. They admit of more intensity and interpretation because it is not necessary to pad and build them up to a point for a period between acts and then build up to the point where the play left off. In one quarter of the time the one-act play begins, culminates, and ends, and as often as not, its highest point is as powerful, as gripping, and as dramatically effective as the three-act play.

There is toward the one-act play too much of the attitude that it is for amateurs. Let Ethel Barrymore play *The Twelve Pound Look* and see how fast this argument falls to the ground. Surely such artists as Galsworthy, Barrie, and Shaw are not beginners in the art of dramatic writing. The crying need is for capable actors to show us what can be done with the one-act play. As far as effective production is concerned the one-act play is no better suited to amateurs than is the long play. It has its advantages for amateurs but simplicity of acting is not one of them.

Another objection that is trumped up against the one-act play is that the audience cannot easily adjust itself to the changing scenes of a series of one-act plays. Is this a psychological fact? Is a music lover unable to appreciate a concert of miscellaneous numbers? Does the vaudeville audience have difficulty in adjusting itself to the various numbers on the bill? In fact, variety is its attraction. Each part has the effect of completeness in itself and the mind has no difficulty in accommodating itself to each act presented. The fallacy of these objectors is that they think of the one-acter as a dwarfed longer play. As I have already explained, it is not. It is a type in itself just as the short story is. Would not a bill of three or four one-act plays done by excellent actors please an evening audience because of the variety of life depicted?

It is in the Little Theatre that the one-act play entered as a friend. Profiting by the atmosphere of intimacy, and profiting still more by the natural selection which has determined its audience, it has dealt with any and every subject, and according to its

excellence has found warm welcome. By 1915 the one-acter had become the backbone of the little theatre movement. In Oliver Sayler's list of important productions in his *Our American Theatre*, he does not note a single one-act play from the spring of 1908 through to 1910. The greatest year for the one-act play was 1915. During the rise (and shall one say fall?) of the little theatre many notable playhouses have arisen. Among these Cleveland's playhouse opened in 1917 but it has done few one-act plays. The Pasadena Theatre is "little" in the sense of being independent and amateur, but it, too, seldom gives short plays.

It is to be noted that of the fourteen survivors of the scores of typical little theatres, only the Carolina Playmakers gave one-act plays through a quarter-year. Since 1915, the year that saw the birth of the Washington Square Players, the Neighborhood Playhouse, and the Stuart Walker's Portmanteau Theatre, the demand for the one-act play has been ebbing. Many of the miniature playhouses which gave support to the one-act play died from financial anemia because they gave Shaw, Strindberg, Synge, and others of like calibre regardless of their subscriber's sense of appreciation.

The short story found its outlet in the magazines. Writers of short stories are paid as high as a thousand dollars for one story. Dramatists will not write one-act plays unless they are paid for them. Magazines seldom print plays. The income must come from royalties. Directors of school dramatics should insist that royalties be paid. The royalty of the one-act play is quite different from the royalty of the longer play. Since fate has decreed that the authors of one-act plays must look to amateur organizations for his royalties, he must adapt his fee to them, making up in the quantity of performances for what he loses in the size of a single royalty. It would be possible for a dramatist to get worthwhile compensation from the amateur organizations if all of them should put on his work. If, for instance, it were agreed that each year a prize play should be given by all amateur groups, a considerable sum could be realized. This would help to buy groceries and, incidentally, would stimulate further one-act play production.

I have written all this because I am interested in seeing the one-act play endure. The one act-play justifies itself as a worthwhile study of human life and character. It enlarges the dramatic

field with the presentation of many nooks and crannies of human nature. Its length helps in the externalization of ideas impossible in lengthier treatment. It is highly acceptable to an audience. It permits of a high-tensioned emotional appeal. It can be used to supplement a longer play so that an audience may get its money's worth. It is adaptable to high school and college needs, for more students can be used. (Thus increasing the size of the audience which comes to see its friends crown themselves with glory or disaster, as the case may be.) The one-act play is not as expensive as regards royalty. It lends itself splendidly to the teaching of dramatic technique.

I find myself wondering if the one-act play will flourish as has the short story.

THEODORUS OF BYZANTIUM: WORD-SMITH

BROMLEY SMITH

WORD-SMITH, coiner of phrases, artificer of language, 'logo-daidalos,' Plato called Theodorus, a rhetorician from Byzantium. The philosopher used the epithet in the course of an imaginary dialog between the young Phaedrus and the wise Socrates, during which they had been paring down the art of rhetoric, until only a small core remained. This core, according to Socrates, consisted of a few trifling technicalities, niceties (Kompsa), hardly worth consideration by a man of serious mind.

> *Socrates.* First is the *exordium,* showing how the speech should begin .... Then follows the *statement of facts,* and upon that the witnesses. Thirdly, the *irrefutable proofs.* Fourthly, the *probable proofs.* The great Byzantine word-maker (logo-daidalos) also speaks, if I am not mistaken, of *confirmation* and *further confirmation.*
>
> *Phaedrus.* You mean the excellent Theodorus?
>
> *Socrates.* Yes; and he tells how *refutation* and further *refutation* is to be managed, whether in accusation or defense[1]

Thus did Plato lightly touch the labors of the rhetorician from the future city of Constantine. Not one word did he write about

[1] *Phaedrus,* 266. Jowett, tr.

the man himself, except that he hailed from a city by the strait, thereby distinguishing him from other Theodori at home and abroad. The Byzantine was merely another of those roving teachers who came from outside to annoy the great philosopher. Tisias and Gorgias had crossed from Sicily, Protagoras had ridden from Abdera, Prodicus had journeyed from Ceos, Hippias had walked from Elis on sandals made by his own hands, Thrasymachus had sailed from Chalcedon, and now Theodorus had been wafted down from the Bosphorus. Where were the native-born Athenian rhetoricians? Why should the outlying Greeks furnish all the teachers of rhetoric? Plato did not ask, nor try to answer, the questions, but amused himself by jibing at the wondering teachers. Inasmuch as he gave no further details concerning Theodorus, we must look to others for a slight amount of information.

From Dionysius' criticism of Isaeus comes the negative remark that the Byzantine was "somewhat archaic, and neither given to accuracy in his art nor to sufficient inquiry in his forensic efforts."[2] These forensic efforts may be those mentioned by Suidas, being certain addresses written for clients who were attacking Thrasybulus, Andocides, and others. That he did sell the products of his pen was reported by Cicero, who wrote that "Lysias was the first who openly professed the *art*. After him, Theodorus, being better versed in the theory than the practice of it, began to compose orations for others to pronounce; but confined himself to the art of composing;"[3]—that is, he wrote speeches, but did not himself speak. These accounts, not very complimentary, were written centuries after Theodorus had passed away, in the light of a fully developed art. Nearer to him, in the days when the rules of rhetoric were in the making, was Aristotle, who placed him among the great pioneers of the art of speaking. "After the first writers," said he, "came Tisias, Thrasymachus after Tisias, and after him Theodorus."[4] Of course, a pioneer should not be expected to exhibit an art in its perfected form. If he blaze a way for others, he may possibly be remembered by posterity. By examining the writings of Plato, Aristotle, and others, a few traces of Theodorus' wanderings in the rhetorical jungle may be discerned.

[2] Dion. Hal. *de Is.* 19.
[3] Cic. *Brutus* XII.
[4] *Soph. El.*, 34.

Among the blazes along the trail, the keen eye of Socrates detected some technical terms descriptive of minor parts or subdivisions of an address. Aristotle sighted a path in the forest of argumentation. But before following them into the depths, we ought first to ascertain why Plato called Theodorus a word-smith.

After flinging the epithet at the rhetorician, the philosopher took it for granted that his readers would understand what he meant. Perhaps they did, although his pupil, Aristotle, was the only writer who left a clue to the meaning. In his analysis of public speaking, he declared that an orator must be vivacious to win applause; he must throw smart things at the audience; be ready with pointed, clever, witty remarks. How may he do this? By extending the connotation. For instance, a good riddle pleases the crowd, because it gives a new perception by way of a metaphor. Then, said he, "The like is true of what Theodorus calls 'Novelty'" (Kaina). This happens when the sequel is a surprise, and is not, as *he* says, according to expectation, like those words, formed by a change which comic writers use. The effect is produced even by jokes depending upon changes made of the letters of a word; they surprise. This is found in verse also. For example, the word in the following line is not what the hearer expects:

'Statelily stept he along, and shod were his feet with—chilblains.' The listener expects sandals. This kind of joke must be clear immediately. Jokes made by changing the letters of a word are obtained by not giving the meaning which is proper to the word but by twisting it. For instance, Theodorus used this expression about Nicon the harp player: 'thratteise.' He pretended to mean 'thrattei se.' Thereby he surprised, for he had another meaning. So, when this is perceived, the point is enjoyed, though it is worthless unless the hearer knows that Nicon is a Thracian." This Greek joke, cracked by Theodorus, may have given vivacity to his remarks and may have pleased his hearers greatly, but it can hardly be appreciated by us, barbarians of another age and tongue. He seems to have been making a pun, with the possible double meaning of "You are a thrashing fellow" and "You are a Thacian maid servant." A modern humorist could turn the tables on Theodorus by asking him to interpret the following: "Many a marriage has been upset by an idle rumor." Certainly the reader is surprised and pleased by the novel expression. That effect seemed

to be desired by the Byzantine when he wrote his chapter on new dress for thought.[5]

No one knew better than Cicero the value of clothing thoughts in new garments, especially in demonstrative exhibitions. Speaking *ex cathedra* in the *Orator*, he said that "Great indulgence is shown to neatly turned sentences. Rhythmical, steady, compact periods are always admissible. Pains are taken purposely, not disguisedly, but openly and avowedly, to make one word answer to another, as if they had been measured together and were equal to each other. So that words opposed to one another may be frequently contrasted, and contrary words compared together; so that sentences may be terminated in the same manner, and may give the same sound at their conclusion.... They say that Thrasymachus of Chalcedon and Gorgias of Leontini were the first men who taught the science; after them Theodorus of Byzantium and many others whom Socrates in the Phaedrus calls 'logodaidaloi;' who have said many things very tolerably clever, but which seem as if they had arisen at the moment, trifling, and like animals which change their color and are too minutely painted."[6] If we could

perlative form of Euphuism, as described by Cicero.

have before us some specimens of clever sayings, some passages full of contrasts and sounding phrases, we might find ourselves agreeing with Cicero. We might understand why the novel forms of expression used by Theodorus caused Plato to dip his pen into colored ink to coin the epithet which he put into the mouth of Socrates.

Manufacturing novel forms of expression was only one phase of the Byzantine's activity. Another, which Plato does not mention, was his connection with the argumentative side of rhetoric. Here indeed was a very proper field for a practical man, because the art of persuasion very naturally lead to the court and to the assembly, where the Greeks employed the methods of accusation and defense taught in the classroom. Among these methods was the 'Topic of the Mistake' which Aristotle took from Theodorus' text on rhetoric.[7] It was a typical school-room topic, being drawn

[5] Ar. *Rhet.* III.2.6. Theodorus' pun has given so much trouble to the commentators that I feel justified in adding one more explanation.

[6] *Orator*, XII. The style of these early rhetoricians seems like a su-

[7] *Rhet.* II. 23. 28.

from a literary source, having little connection with real life, yet embodying a serviceable formula. Medea had been charged with the murder of her children, because they were nowhere to be found. If she had sent them away, she had made a mistake; for she was now accused of making away with them. In defense she contended that, if there had been a mistake, it would have consisted in her failure to kill Jason instead of her children. Putting the case in another way: the accusers would say, "You had a motive for killing your children. They are not to be found, therefore you murdered them." In reply Medea would say, "The same motive would exist for killing Jason. He is still here, therefore I did not murder my children." At the close of his account of this demonstrative enthymeme, Aristotle made a remark which has been the subject of much emendation. One view holds that the meaning of the passage is this: the *whole art of rhetoric before* the days of Theodorus consisted of this topic. That view is not entirely absurd, even though it fails to recognize the discoveries of Corax, Tisais, Gorgias and other composers of texts in connection with arrangement and style, for Aristotle may have meant that the early writers regarded proof as a matter of probability.[8] The Medea case would have no absolute proof on either side; accordingly preponderance of probability would have to be weighed by the judges. Another view holds that the 'Topic of the Mistake' is the *whole* of the *earlier art* of Theodorus. This is absurd, for no treatise on rhetoric could be confined to one small topic. If, however, it means that Theodorus composed at one time (his earlier art) a rhetoric based on the doctrine of probabilities; and at another time (later) an improved edition which included absolute proof and other phases of rhetoric, then there may be a measure of truth in the view. The problem is really one of textual emendation. For present purposes it is enough to know that Theodorus handled the 'Topic of the Mistake,' thereby identifying himself with the argumentative aspects of public speaking. That he did touch other aspects is fairly certain, for Aristotle refers to him three times in his own treatise, each time in a different connection.

One of these connections dealt with the parts of an address. Socrates, it will be recalled, had mentioned, as principal parts, the exordium, the narration, the witnesses, the demonstrative and prob-

[8] See Corax in The Q. J. of Sp. Ed. for Feb. 1921.

able proofs; and then had credited the great Byzantine word-maker with "confirmation, and further confirmation," with "refutation and further refutation." Of these terms, confirmation, or affirmative argument hardly needs explanation; but the other terms invented or used by Theodorus demand some examination. Concerning 'further confirmation' it is enough to say that it was not a new primary division, but rather a name for additional proof of argument spoken out of the typical order, say in the latter part of an oration, just before the conclusion—a parting shot, as it were. The other terms with which he is credited are not so easily interpreted. Taking the first of them, the elenchos, we note that Aristotle used it as a term for a refutation in which the arguments or evidences of the opponent were upset by drawing opposite conclusions. For instance, it might be argued that a certain man had committed murder, for there was blood on his clothes. The Elenchos would be: this man is innocent, for the blood on his clothes is that of a chicken. From the illustration, the Elenchos would seem to be a *special* form of refutation. Theodorus, however, used it as the term for *refutation in general,* assuming that Plato was quoting him correctly. The term which was coming into use was 'lusis' (refutatio, reprehensio), one which the later rhetoricians adopted; but which in the days of Theodorus had not been generally accepted. Nowhere, for instance, does the author of the *Rhetorica ad Alexandrum* employ 'lusis'; he always uses 'Elenchos'. By the time of Aristotle both terms were in use, almost interchangeably. Both were employed in his Rhetoric, although 'lusis' is the general term. Nevertheless, showing the flexibility of usage, Aristotle wrote a whole treatise on *Sophistical Elenchi,* or Refutations, a work which dealt with as many phases of refutation as the nimble-minded philosopher could remember or imagine. Theodorus was accordingly in the best of company when he used the term 'Elenchos' for refutation in general.

Having devised one term, he soon discovered the need of another; for he noted that speakers frequently placed parts of their refutation out of the typical position. This dislocated, additional, supplementary refutation Theodorus called 'Epiexelenchos'. It would be somewhat the equivalent of a sur-rebuttal in debate, a final refutation in which additional negative conclusions could be presented, clinching the argument and demolishing the opposition.

So far, only the Theodosian terms mentioned by Plato have been discussed. Aristotle's account, for some unknown reason, differs somewhat from that of his great predecessor. He drops out 'confirmation and further confirmation' and inserts in their places *narration, post-narration,* and *pre-narration.* Such divisions, ascribed to Theodorus, were regarded by Aristotle as 'idle and frivolous.' In his mind two parts only were essential: the statement and the proof. All other divisions, such as the exordium, the narration, the refutation, and the peroration he considered ridiculous.[9] He was willing, however, to compromise with the text-book writers by admitting as a minimum four possible points: the exordium, the exposition, the proof, and the peroration. Refutation he ruled out because he regarded it as a part of proof. The exordium was really unnecessary because it demonstrated nothing; while the epilog merely refreshed the memory. Any new term in arrangement was admissible only when a distinct need for such a term appeared; otherwise, it was 'empty and nonsensical.'[10]

Were the narrational terms used by Theodorus 'empty and nonsensical'? Before an answer can be given to the question, the meaning of the expressions must first be determined. Turning to Cicero for aid, we find him defining narration as a setting forth of facts, in order to establish a sort of base and foundation for the establishment of belief.[11] In his early treatise he spoke of it as an explanation of acts that have been done or of acts as if they had been done.[12] A century later Quintilian adopted Cicero's definition, for he looked upon narration as a persuasive exposition of that which either has been done, or is supposed to have been done; or, quoting a definition given by Apollodorus, it was a speech instructing the audience as to the nature of the case in dispute.[13] It is evident that Quintilian had the usage of the court-room in mind. Other kinds of narration were, however, recognized by him; for he called attention to the fictitious, the realistic, the historical, and the poetic. These varieties were not generally suitable for use in suits, he thought, but could be employed in eulogies and in the

[9] *Rhet.* III. 13.
[10] Rhet. III. 13. 4-5.
[11] Or. Part. 9.
[12] Rhet. Inv. I. 19.
[13] Inst. Orat. IV. 2. 31.

class-room. After defining narration, Quintilian followed the examples of other Roman and Greek authorities by giving abundant advice for the best use of this part of an oration.[14] Beyond the definition, however, we are not at present interested.

We turn to the 'preliminary or *pre-narration*' of Theodorus. This might be considered a brief account of events placed somewhere near the beginning of an address, possibly in place of the exordium, preparing the judges for the fuller description of the narration proper. Drifting to the 'supplementary—added—, or *post-narration*,' we may safely say that it was delivered after the proof, or refutation. Writing about this kind of narration, Quintilian called it a *repetita narratio*. In his opinion it belonged to the declamation rather than to forensic oratory and was invented to enable the speaker to set forth his facts at greater length and with more profusion of ornament, as a means of exciting indignation or pity. "Any one who employs this form of repetition should touch lightly on the facts when making his statement, and should content himself with merely indicating what was done, while promising to set forth how it was done more fully when the time comes for it."[15] So much for the opinion of the great Roman rhetorician and his recognition of 'supplementary-narration.'

While we are discussing the two sub-divisions of narration named by Theodorus, we may as well note that even Aristotle, opposed as he was to unnecessary division, was forced by circumstances to adopt partial narrations. He advised speakers to slip in a little side narration to emphasize the virtues of the speaker or to influence the judges. Then he declared that the narrative in *demonstrative* oratory must not be continuous, but broken up. (Only a chapter or two before, he had stated that narration is surely part of a *forensic* speech only). The reason for breaking up is sensible: it rests on the physiological and psychological fact that a long continuous narrative is hard to keep in mind. Finally, he swung completely over to the side of the practical rhetoricians when he admitted narration in *political* oratory as necessary to help the hearers to make better plans for the future. On top of

[14] For details of narration see *Rhet. ad Alex.* 36, *under apaggeliai*; Cic. *de Or.* II. 19; *Or.* 35; *Orat. Part.* IX; *Rhet. Inv.* 1. 19; Quint. IV. 2. at great length; Ar. *Rhet.* III. 16.

[15] Quint. Inst. Orat. IV. 2. 128.

this came a piece of good advice: "Have some narrative in many parts of your speech; and sometimes let there be none at the beginning of it."[16] All of this means that the philosopher had been backed against a wall of hard facts. As a teacher of rhetoric he was compelled to set down what he read in the texts, what he himself must have taught, and what he heard from the platform. Now Theodorus was the man who not only read and heard, and practiced, but who dared to originate terms for the usages of oratory.

Why call the terms invented by the Byzantine 'idle and frivelous,' 'vain and empty'? Why regard them as grand divisions? Would it not be more sensible to consider them useful additions to the nomenclature of rhetoric, especially valuable to a teacher who was analyzing an oratorical effort? That teachers actually used these expressions and many others may be determined from the later rhetorics of the ancients. By the time of Fortunatianus and Capella, eight species of narration had been detected and named, five of them being accredited by Capella to Theodorus. These eight kinds of narration are here given and briefly translated:

Antidiegesis	Counter-Narration
Etidiegesis	After—, or repeated-narration
Katadiegesis	Distributive-narration
Merikediegesis	Divided-narration
Paradiegesis	Incidental-narration
Prodiegesis	Preliminary-narration
Hypodiegesis	Secondary-narration
Diaskeue	Vivid-narration, for effect[17]

Certainly the detection of eight kinds of narration would require such a strong rhetorical microscope that our sympathy for the pupils who were forced to such a minute analysis of orations should be aroused. There was, however, a method in the pedagogical madness, a method which Plato failed to grasp. He seemed to regard the whole system of training as a hotch-potch. At least, his analysis of the rhetorical terms which he quoted would indicate carelessness, ignorance, or perversity on his part. For instance,

[16] See Chapters 13 and 16 of the third book of the Rhetoric where Aristotle gives way the position taken in the first chapter of the first book; that any one who lays down rules for the narration is theorizing about non-essentials. I. 1. 9; III. 13. 3; 16. 1, 5, 10-11.

[17] Halm: Rhet. Min: Fortunatianus, Martianus Capella.
Walz: Rhet. Gr. III. 140, 454.

in the *Phaedrus* he directs Socrates to give the parts, the 'niceties', the headings of an oration, (the Rhetorica Kephalaia of the later rhetoricians). Socrates dutifully and correctly begins with the proem and the narrative. Then he goes off at a tangent, for he mentions infallible signs (tekmeria) and probabilities (eikota). Noticing that he is wandering, he comes back into the beaten path, presenting proof and after--proof, refutation and super-refutation. Next ought to come the epilog or conclusion. Instead, however, he perversely enumerates the inventions of Evenus—insinuations, indirect praises, and indirect censures—; then the discoveries of Gorgias and Tisias—amplification and minimization, archaization and modernization, conciseness and copiousness—; following up with the terms employed by Polus—diplasiology, gnomology, and eikonology—; on top of those the correct diction of Protagoras and the emotional appeals of Thrasymachus; and finally swinging back into line he says: "All of them agree in asserting that a speech should end in a *recapitulation*, though they do not all agree to use the same word."[18]

Thus did Plato show that he was familiar with the terminology of the rhetoricians. Why then did he jumble a lot of rhetorical terms together while he was discussing the disposition, the arrangement of parts, beginning with the exordium and ending with the peroration? Did he believe all of them were parts of an oration, equal in importance to the craftsman? We are confronted by a mystery. Possibly Plato was lightly tossing the whole paraphernalia of rhetoric into his waste-basket, as he turned to what he considered a more important philosophical subject. His obsession was transferred to his pupil, Aristotle. He also, while enumerating the parts of an oration, condemned the divisions of Theodorus and made light of the terms invented by Licymnius—"Speeding on," "Digression," and "Ramification." He failed to observe that these rhetoricians were not foisting new grand divisions upon the world, but were striving to furnish descriptive terms for the many variations from the norm, from the type-oration. His attitude seems strange in view of the fact that he was always seeking divisions and generalizations for 'a One and Many' in nature and art. Some of the terms at which he smiled were adopted by sub-

[18] Various words were used, as epilogos, anakephalaiosis, epanodos.

sequent generations, others failed to become media of exchange. No one accepted the Aristotelian compression into two essential terms—statement and proof. To do so would be very much like teaching that a banquet consists of two fundamental parts: hunger and food. That might be strictly scientific, but it would not be artistic. The chefs in charge would probably elaborate the menu with appetizers, entrees, dessert, and other technicalities of the culinary craft. So rhetoricians, examining the productions of speakers in court, assembly, and exhibition, would naturally discover more than the bare bones of a speech. Theodorus was one of those keen investigators who believed that narrations, proofs, and refutations, coming out of the normal position, should have appropriate designations. His ideas were adopted or modified by subsequent rhetoricians and may be detected even in our own day, especially in the strategy of debate, even though descriptive terms have been largely abandoned.

If we had the text issued by the Byzantine, we might follow him with greater confidence. Unfortunately, it is lost in the abyss along with his speeches and logographs. What little knowledge we have must be gleaned almost wholly from his critics. They assure us that a man from Byzantium invented terms for the subdivisions of the principal parts of an oration; that he showed how plaintiffs and defendants in their arguments might take advantage of the probabilities involved in mistakes; and that, scorning nakedness in style, he beat out, like an armorer upon his anvil, novel forms of expression.

SPEECH COURSES IN THE TEACHERS' COLLEGES

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IN the QUARTERLY JOURNAL of June, 1922[1] there appeared an article by Miss Rousseau setting forth the results of a survey of Speech courses in the Normal Schools. This left the impression that at that time the normal schools were not doing as much as they might to further the cause of speech education. The lack of agreement as to aims and content of courses, the weakness of the offerings in many schools and the great variety in nomenclature of the courses were among the chief points brought out.

That these conditions still exist is shown by an investigation of my own carried out on somewhat the same lines except for the fact that only the leading normal schools were examined and the emphasis was on the content and method of the beginning course. For this purpose forty of the most prominent teachers' colleges of the country were chosen and only those offering a four-year course leading to a baccalaureate degree. If there has been any advance, it will surely be shown in these schools. The data used were secured from bulletins and from answers to questionnaires.

What were the results? First, there is the same lack of agreement as to nomenclature of departments. In just half of these schools the work is in the English department; in the others it is classified as Speech, Reading, Dramatics, Oral Expression, Reading and Public Speaking, English and Public Speaking. The few institutions having a separate Speech Department offer rather extensive work, but the majority of schools give from one to four courses most of which continue for only one term of twelve weeks. The confusion as to title and content of courses seems to have increased. The catalogues list thirty-eight separate courses not counting the work in Dramatics. Most of these are found in a few schools. One department offers eighteen courses in Speech not including Dramatics, another offers fifteen courses and another

[1] Speech Education in the Normal Schools—A Survey, Q. J. S. E., June, 1922.

twelve. Neither in the aims of these courses nor in their content is there any more agreement.

The chief object of the investigation was to find something of the content and method of the beginning course in Public Speaking. Where the first course was devoted entirely to reading it was passed over in favor of the fundamental course in speech-making or the course which presented the fundamentals of the whole field.

Let us take first the teaching objectives of this course. As given in the bulletins they appear in order of frequency as follows:

To train students to gather and arrange material for speeches.
To teach the student to express his thoughts to an audience with freedom, force and ease.
To help remove fear and self-consciousness.
To correct faults of voice and speech.
To develop better platform manners.
To give the student a basis for self-criticism.
To teach the student to gain the attention of the audience.
To establish habits of accurate speech.

As to the method and content of the course there is little agreement. In perhaps a majority of schools the main emphasis is upon the preparation and delivery of speech material, but in others interpretation and original speaking are both stressed, the aim being to cover the fundamentals of the whole field of speech. Usually the course consists of (1) the theory of speech as given through text assignments, lectures and outside readings; (2) laboratory work consisting of speeches, readings, etc., and (3) criticism by the instructor. The greater number of teachers according to the replies present the theory in text assignments, but a few use only outside reading assignments, a few supplement the text by lectures, a few use all methods, while two or three assign very little theory giving only suggestions and criticism. The replies indicated too that practically all of the teachers use the class hour for the presentation and discussion of theory. In one school one day out of four is used for theory; one teacher lectures, and in assignments uses mimeographed sheets and the project method.

The diversity of methods in this course is shown by the number of different texts used. The list of texts in use as indicated

by the replies and the number of schools using each one is as follows:

Public Speaking—Winans.....5
Effective Speaking—Phillips.....2
Fundamentals of Speech—Woolbert.....3
Essentials of Speech—Pelsma.....2
Purposive Speaking—West.....2
Public Speaking—Shurter.....1
Elements of Public Speaking—Houghton.....1
The Delivery of a Speech—Immel.....1
Speech Making—Hollister.....1
Elements of Speech—O'Neill & Weaver.....1
Public Speaking Today—Lockwood & Thorpe.1
The Speaking of English—Gilson.....1
Platform Speaking—Collins.....1

The above list indicates only the fundamental text in use. In many cases supplementary material is assigned in other books dealing with theory, in others of the above texts and in books of specimens. About half of those replying indicated that they have their students study speech models in connection with their own speeches.

The prevailing practice is for the students to deliver original speeches applying the theory learned by text and lectures and in which both the ideas and the form of the speech are stressed. Some schools combine this work in original speeches with readings for vocal development and training in delivery. In a few schools most of the time of the course is given to delivery with a study of the voice, enunciation and the principles of expression while the original speech is used only incidentally.

On the kinds of speeches required of students in the fundamental course there is less agreement than in other matters. The best I can do here is to indicate all of the types of speeches used with the number of times each one is mentioned in descriptions of the courses.

Speech of Conviction.....7
Speech of Exposition.....6
After-dinner speech.....5
Speech of persuasion.....5
Committed declamation.....4
Speech of narration.....1
Speech of introduction.....1
Speech of description.....1

Reading	1
Report on a great speech	1
Eulogy	1
Oration	1
Short current event speech	1
Speech of welcome	1
Speech of response	1
Informal debate	1
Impromptu speech	1
Humorous story	1
Forum program speech	1
Commemorative address	1
Speech of entertainment	1

When the above named speeches are used the most prevalent procedure is to begin with short informal speeches, then to proceed to the longer ones, with a final eight to twelve minute speech at the close of the term. Some teachers have their students begin with personal experiences or short informal speeches on familiar subject matter which will emphasize naturalness and directness of style. Later come four or five minute speeches which require the gathering of material and in which the emphasis is upon the logical arrangement. All sorts of topics are used depending generally upon the interests of the student, but present day questions in economics, politics and sociology were mentioned most frequently in the replies to the questionnaires.

In the matter of criticism of speeches the replies showed practical agreement. All teachers criticize the speeches of students mostly before the class or both privately and in class. In one case alone is the criticism given only privately. One teacher says that she gives criticism privately at first and later before the class. Seventeen have the students criticize the speeches of each other, three do not. A device used by one teacher is to have the students write the criticisms on cards and hand them to the speaker at the close of the hour.

It has not been my purpose to offer criticism of this course, but merely to make a summary of the content and of the methods used. This has been made difficult by the lack of agreement as to what the course should offer and the wide variation in method. As a great many of the students take only this course it seemed to me that a summary of this kind would give a good idea of what training in Speech our elementary teachers have.

The chief impression left upon me by this investigation is that the teachers' colleges and normal schools, if they are to meet the purpose for which they were founded, must provide more definite work in speech training. If we are to do anything to make the people of this country more articulate, the work must begin in the elementary schools. This simply means that the teachers in these schools must not only possess good speech, but they must have a knowledge of the problems involved in the teaching of good speech and good reading. In this direction lies one of the great opportunities of the normal schools in American education.

A SURVEY OF INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATE IN THE MID-WEST DEBATE CONFERENCE

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(This Conference is an association of colleges in the Middle West which has for its purpose the promotion of intercollegiate discussion of public questions. Members of the Conference felt that they would be aided materially in solving their own local problems by securing a unified statement of the management of debate in other institutions. A questionnaire was sent to one hundred and three colleges in the Middle West; fifty-six institutions responded. The results are presented here.)

I. THE FINANCING OF DEBATE.

The returns from the questionnaire indicate that most of the colleges have established a definite financial plan which guarantees them a specified sum of money each year for intercollegiate debate.

1. Computing the average, we find that each college spent $697.54 to carry on debate during 1926-27.

2. 42 schools or 78% rely on student assessment. 3 of these schools receive in addition some aid from the general college budget. 39 or 72.7% of the colleges rely entirely on student assessment.

3. 13 schools receive their entire support for forensics from the general college budget.

4. 11 schools are aided by revenue from debate. 35 schools note that they cannot look for any revenue from debate. The largest amount of revenue from debate noted is $200.

5. The average assessment on the student for debate is $1.00 plus. The range of assessment is from $.17 to $2.00. Only two schools, however, have an assessment of less than $.50 and in these two cases the student enrollment is over 1500.

II. TYPES OF DEBATE.

1. The preference of the colleges is for one of two types of debate: the "open-forum-no-decision" or the "expert decision" (one judge) debate. 46 schools note that they use the first plan; 44 schools note the second. It must be remembered that each college had the opportunity to record every form it had used. Unfortunately the writer neglected to request that the number of each type used be recorded. Two-thirds of the colleges noted, however, that they used the no-decision-open-forum type most frequently. The following comment is typical of the statements in support of the first plan: "We found the no-decision style followed by an audience discussion very satisfactory. It seemed to produce a more virile and original style of debating. There was more personality displayed than otherwise was the case." Only 22 schools made use of an audience decision on the merits of the question before and after the debate. 25 schools have had decision debates followed by an open forum; 34 have employed the traditional three judges to decide the issue.

2. That colleges show little inclination to reduce the number of speakers on a team is evident from the reports. 56 or all of the colleges maintain that the "3-man team" is the best. 22 schools note, to be sure, that they have participated in "2-man" debates but these seem to have been only single experiences. The notation, "but once," in answer to this question seems to indicate that it does not have ardent support. Only 3 colleges reported having engaged in a "split-team" debate.

3. In regard to the most popular number of rebuttal speeches, there can be little doubt. It is true that 21 institutions have engaged in 1-rebuttal debates but the highest number of this type in any one college was five. Contrast with this the fact that 52 schools heard six rebuttal speeches in 9 out of every 10 debates. 14 colleges have varied their debates by having two rebuttals but here again it seems to have been the variation rather than the rule.

4. The "off-campus" debate has taken great strides forward. In 43 colleges this form of debate is in favor. The number of such

debates ranges from 2 to 24. There is something more than numbers that convinces the writer of the popularity of this variation in audience. "Our off-campus debates are favored by our debaters." "We debated the McNary-Haugen Bill before ten nearby farm clubs; it went over." "It is my intention to arrange an extensive program of debates before civic organizations next year. Some of the debates will be intercollegiate, some between two O— teams. These are all to be no-decision debates but the audience will vote on the question before and after the debate." "We held five debates before organizations and 18 before high school or community groups." "Our most popular debates are held before luncheon clubs and the Chamber of Commerce." R—College writes of the off-campus debate: "In each case the audience was a farm group and the debaters felt that the debates were the most interesting and profitable in which they had ever engaged." These are typical comments made in support of this type of debate.

III. ADMINISTRATION OF DEBATE.

1. 45 of the 56 institutions responding award academic credit for debate. The average number of credits is 2 hours a semester. The method of awarding this credit varies with colleges. One college allows three hours per semester, the total number of hours to be accumulated in this manner not to exceed twelve. Another college awards two hours to members of the first year squad, three hours to members of the sophomore, junior and senior squads. Credit at another institution is given to the members of the squad who are enrolled in the course, "Debate Seminar." At A—College "a student in debate earns two semester hours each year. This may be repeated for four years." In another instance, a student must register for credit in the fall; three hours are given. At W—College freshmen and sophomores register for "Argumentation and Debate," juniors and seniors for "Seminar in Argumentation and Rhetoric."

The question of awarding credit to the entire squad shows a divided opinion. 25 of the 45 schools who award credit believe that it should be given to the entire squad; the remaining twenty award it to the intercollegiate debaters only. Such comments as the following may be helpful: "Credit is awarded to debaters who participate in certain specified debates only." At G—College, "credit is given to all on the squad but those who make the team

receive a higher grade, but the same number of hours." O— College awards credit to members of the team only and allows the instructor to determine not only the grade but the number of hours to be given to each debater. This is very similar to the plan of E— College which gives credit "to those who show enough proficiency in the judgment of the coach," and to H— College where "credit is given at the discretion of the director to all those on the squad whose work justifies such credit." At C— College "those who do not make the intercollegiate debate team still receive credit but they must remain in the class for the first semester." S— College awards credit only to those who register for the course in intercollegiate debate; others may be on the squad or team but they do not receive credit. F— College divides the squad into four complete teams, each team participating in an equal number of debates. Another institution awarding credit to the entire squad provides that participation in intercollegiate debates is not necessary as long as work has been satisfactory. The comment, "Yes, award credit to all on the squad,—why not? They all do the work," is representative of the opinion of a number.

2. 70% of the colleges allow first year students to debate.

3. One of the three plans for selecting debaters is mentioned by all colleges.

a. 14 schools favor what might be termed the "invitation squad," i. e., no formal tryouts are held; any student may joint the squad. An intensive study of the question is made by all members. The students are not chosen for the specific teams until shortly before the debate, the period varying from one day to two weeks. This statement from Q— College is a representative description: "Choose a large preliminary squad without formal tryouts to scare people away. After a general study of the question, a round of debates, etc., cut the squad to size desired, which, in my opinion, should be fairly large. From this squad try various combinations and announce the personnel of the team only a few days in advance of a given debate."

b. The second plan in favor we will call the "competitive squad." The group is selected by public tryout, with judges either from the department of Speech or from other departments of the college. The director of debate then selects his teams from the squad. V—College writes in support of this plan: "Select the

squad by general tryout. Then put these squads to work with the understanding that everyone who show initiative and the ability will be given the chance to debate. I have 12 people on each squad I never announce the personnel of the team until the day before the debate."

c. The third plan, mentioned by 9 colleges is the "class" method, of which the following is a representative explanation: "I have all prospects enroll in a class in theory. I pick the best men from this class. The question is studied from one to three months. We divide the class into teams and have actual debates. Those members who are not selected for platform work are utilized in research, publicity, etc."

d. Some colleges believe that the best plan is to have a series of actual debates, employing the same judges for all the contests. Other colleges mention a progressive series of class debates, interclass debates, and college debates to determine the intercollegiate debate team.

4. From the returns of the questionnaire, it is evident that women have invaded the forensic field to stay. 9 colleges out of every ten have women participating in intercollegiate debate. 44 institutions have separate women's teams,—11 institutions a separate director for women's debate. This is rather striking proof of the falsity of the statement from one gentleman that "women can't argue." The succeeding comment of this director who declares that they "tried women's teams once,—never again" leads the writer to believe that his experience was a rather unhappy one. This statement from Z— College should give him new hope: "This year we used more women in debate than men; we had three women's teams debating two questions."

5. Medals and election to an honorary society seem to be the favorite way of awarding distinction to debaters. 25 schools give medals; 34 schools have honorary forensic societies,—Delta Sigma Rho, Pi Kappa Delta, Tau Kappa Alpha. A few colleges give gavels to intercollegiate debaters; others award college pins, money, numerals, or sweaters.

6. On the average, the colleges use 17 students in intercollegiate debate each year. The numbers run from 7 in case of J— College to 51 at U— College. The squad is a somewhat larger group, averaging 25 members. The largest squad recorded was 75.

7. The figures on attendance are so frequently qualified that is is difficult to find a true average. For instance, V— College writes: "The average is 230. At the college it was about 30. The mean is swelled by the debates before high schools and community groups." Again, J— College answers to this question: "Usually about 125; international debate, 1800; one debate on farm relief before special audience, 1100. The debates with the University of Sydney and Cambridge University were attended by audiences ranging from 800 to 2700 people. The debates before community groups, women's clubs, Rotary and Kiwanis clubs, farm granges attracted groups averaging 100-350. The regular campus debate with a neighboring institution drew an audience of 155."

8. The titles of the departments which direct debate were a source of interest. Debate was under the direction of the "Department of Public Speaking" in 19 colleges, "Department of Speech" in 13 colleges, "Department of Oratory" in 1 college, "Department of Expression" in 1 college, "Department of Reading and Speech" in 1 college, "Department of English," in 18 colleges, "Department of Political Science" in 1 college, "Department of Chemistry" in 1 college, "Department of Economics" in 1 college.

9. The teaching load of the director of debate varies somewhat from college to college, the extremes being 9 and 17 hours. The average teaching schedule is 14 hours.

IV. QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE.

"That the essential principles of the Mc-Nary-Haugen Bill should be enacted into law" was the most debated question in the Middle West during 1926-27. 31 colleges answering the questionnaire used this topic for discussion. The second most popular question was the problem of enacting a uniform marriage and divorce law. This question was used by 17 colleges.

Other questions that were debated are:

(1) Resolved, That this House favors Mussolini's principles of government. 11 colleges.

(2) Resolved, That our present system of trial by jury should be abolished. 9 colleges.

(3) Resolved, That Federal grants in aid to the states should be discontinued. 9 colleges.

(4) Resolved, That there should be a modification of the

eighteenth amendment to legalize the manufacture and sale of wines and beer. 9 colleges.

(5) Resolved, That the democratic ideal is a mistaken sentiment. 7 colleges.

(6) Resolved, That the inter-allied war debts should be cancelled. 7 colleges.

V. GENERAL INFORMATION.

1. Only one college declares that there is so much student interest in debate that it is unnecessary for them to give the matter thought. The majority confesses it to be a most baffling problem.

Suggestions as to the remedy for this situation center around four principal ideas: (1) election to honorary society; (2) debates away from home (all debaters like some award; give them a few attractive trips); (3) interesting, non-academic questions; (4) advertisement through college and local papers, assembly or chapel speeches, farce debates, letters to high school debaters, etc. These suggestions are mentioned by two-thirds of the colleges. Other suggestions which may be of help are: (1) Popularization of the material for presentation by employment of humor, elimination of desk-hammering, aggressive oratory, etc. (2) medals and prizes; (3) a system of intramural debate; (4) "decision" debates (develop a winning team!); (5) "no-decision-open-forum" debates; (6) a Mid-West Debate Tournament.

2. It was difficult to gain an opinion of the type of question that debate directors preferred because of the use of ambiguous terminology. A number of colleges declare that they like no certain type; they use both philosophical and statistical questions. Other colleges claim that the philosophical question is excellent for upperclassmen and more interesting to the audience, but that it demands a maturity and background of debaters that is difficult to find. 25 colleges hold that the statistical question is the better; 17 colleges vote for the philosophical question.

3. In regard to the problem of judging, it is evident that we are swinging from the traditional three-judge system to the single expert critic judge. 25 colleges maintain that it is the best solution to the problem of decisions. The three-judge plan still has support, however; 14 colleges favor it. Three colleges note that they prefer three expert critic judges,—a slightly different proposition. If there must be a decision, say 7 colleges, let it be an

audience decision on the merits of the question before and after the debate. The remainder of the colleges believes in no-decision debating.

4. The matter of a cash guarantee to visiting teams is answered in the majority of instances with qualifications. 26 colleges state that they are willing to make a cash guarantee if it is sufficiently small, if the team is so noted that it will aid the cause of debating on the local campus, or if the arrangement is reciprocal in subsequent years. 24 colleges maintain a policy of "no guarantees," stating in support of their policy that they prefer to spend their money on their own debaters and establish permanent dual relationships with nearby institutions.

5. This chart showing the preference in number and length of speeches is self-explanatory:

Constructive	Rebuttal
31 colleges favor 10 minute speeches	16 colleges favor 5 minute speeches
11 colleges favor 12 minute speeches	11 colleges favor 5-5-7 minute speeches
4 colleges favor 12-10-10 minute speeches	3 colleges favor 7 minute speeches
5 colleges favor 15 minute speeches	2 colleges favor 6 minute speeches
2 colleges favor 7-7-5 minute speeches	1 college favors 4-4-6 minute speeches
40 colleges favor 3 speeches	28 colleges favor 3 rebuttals
16 colleges favor 2 speeches	5 colleges favor 2 rebuttals

Most directors agree that a two-man debate is more interesting to the audience but that a team of three is the more valuable educationally because its utilizes a greater number of students.

6. The writer finds it impossible to organize the comments suggested under reforms. The problem of judging is mentioned by a number of colleges. They ask for "more honesty in judging," "uniform standards of judging," "more pay for judges." 6 colleges suggest the adoption of the "Oregon plan of debate." A number of colleges hope for less formality, more real wit, less attention to technicalities, more genuine discussion of the question in the debating of the future. The following passages are quoted directly from the questionnaires:

"Too much responsibility now rests on coaches. Debates are apt to be too much the work of coaches. Students seem to prac-

tice too long on one subject. They ought to be tested on ability to investigate, to collect material and organize debates, and on skill in presenting material to an audience in such a manner as successfully to persuade and convince."

"Abolish the special rebuttal speech. This forces the speaker to introduce rebuttal into his main speech. A few years of debating under this plan does much to develop flexibility. It is used exclusively by the Eastern Intercollegiate Debate League."

"Eliminate championships everywhere. Have speakers present their discussions before real audiences, audiences whose opinions they definitely set out to influence."

"Let us have more variety in types of debates; more willingness to try new sorts and arrangements."

MEASUREMENT AND ANALYSIS OF AUDIENCE OPINION

HOWARD S. WOODWARD
Western Reserve University

AUDIENCE opinion is an elusive thing. Shy at times, at times graciously pliable and accommodating; sometimes stolidly indifferent, emotionally effervescent sometimes; sometimes vociferous and belligerent; intelligent, informed and self-expressive, or uninformed and averse to exposing its ignorance; generally revealing a high state of inertia when asked to use pencils as well as minds,—an inertia that urging and cajolery can only partially overcome. The following is a part of the record of a persistent and extensive effort to get this elusive thing on record and evaluate it. To throw, by experimental findings, some illumination upon the behavior of public opinion in response to public discussion in the form of debating.

I. Statement of Conditions and Methods

This is a record that covers a period of three years, beginning in 1924 and ending in 1927. The number of audiences was 118; the number of individual voters, 3540; the number of questions, 8; the method of securing the expression of opinion was by use of a shift-of-opinion ballot; the speakers were nearly all students at Western Reserve University. These debates, carried on by the twenty or

thirty men who are active in the work each year, are called "Forum Debates," to differentiate them from the intercollegiate debates. Several intercollegiate debates are included in the record because the conditions differed from those of the "Forum Debates" only in that the debaters represented two schools instead of one. The groups were all Cleveland audiences and those of nearby towns; in no cases were they campus audiences or audiences actuated by patriotic interest in the home school. All debates were open to the public but consisted largely of members of the organizations under whose auspices the debates were held and friends of such members. There was a great variety of these organizations,—local lodges of the Masonic order, the Knights of Pythias, the Maccabees, church clubs of divers denominations, Kiwanis, Chambers of Commerce, ward political clubs, factory clubs, a few high schools.

For two years before this record begins there were similar programs of debates. This was a period of experiment in an effort to find a ballot which would secure a maximum number of votes from each audience and a minimum of error that would invalidate the ballots. This involved testing the various classifications of opinion to be recorded on the ballots by the audience. Many revisions of the wording of instructions on the ballots and of the typographical forms also became necessary.

In the fall of 1924 the form of ballot was adopted which, with only one change, has been in use ever since. (Form A, page 109.) This change provides for sex and age data instead of the name of the voter. These ballots are 7x9 inches and space is provided for a brief statement of reasons for the attitude that is voted. Whenever conditions are such that it can be done, the audience is urged to vote before the debate, and again after it is over. This is usually done by a member of the instructional staff or by the management. The audience is also urged to mark the sex and age blanks. This is all that is requested of the audience. Generally the desirability of giving "Reasons" is mentioned but not emphasized. The back of the ballot is a form providing for "Comments on argument and presentation;" but no effort is made to secure its use by the audience. Many people do use it and give criticism that is profitable to the speakers. The whole form is so designed as to require a minimum of oral persuasion by the management and of activity

by the audience. The ballot serves its fundamental purpose if it bears two X's, registering the opinion of the voter.

The shift is tabulated after the debate by the management and announced as a decision of the debate at the close of the forum period. The next day the manager who is in attendance takes the ballots to the debate library and records and analyzes them on a form provided for the purpose. (Form B, page 110.) The ballots are then put into a binder and left in the room for study by the debaters, and the record sheet is there posted for their perusal.

The audience gets the statement of the question for discussion from a program which is distributed to it. This is a program printed for the season, not a special program for each debate. The program carries statements of all questions being debated, the list of names of all the students, from twenty to thirty in number, who are doing the speaking, the names of the student management and the instructional staff, the intercollegiate debate schedule, and a "catechism" relative to the "Forum Debates." (Form C, page 110.)

The form is set up and the type held throughout the season, changes being made as the list of questions, the list of speakers and the intercollegiate schedule change. Several printings are made in the course of the season.

Usually at these "Forum Debates" there is a critic judge. He is generally an alumnus member of the Western Reserve Chapter of Delta Sigma Rho. This judge is in attendance to decide the debate on the basis of effective debating and to sit down with the speakers at the close of the discussion for a "post mortem." He is provided with a form for his notes of criticism. This is brought to the debate library the following day, fastened into a letter file folder and placed at the disposal of the whole squad. Sometimes there are two, occasionally three such judges. These decisions furnish the basis of comparison with the audience decision which is discussed later.

This in brief is a statement of the conditions under which were secured the data I am submitting, and a suggestion of the methods employed throughout.

II. Success of the method in "getting out the vote"

Audiences use this shift-of-opinion ballot to an extent that

makes it highly serviceable as a measure of audience opinion on public questions prior to discussion of them and as a means of evaluating the effect of debate on these questions.

The total attendance in the three years under consideration was 8135 and the number of valid ballots returned was 3540, a voting percentage of 43.3. The record is really much more favorable than it would appear from this summation. Of the 118 audiences, 52 voted less than 50% and 66 voted over 50%. Of the 52 audiences voting less than 50%, only 10 voted less than 30%. Of the 66 audiences voting over 50%, 17 voted between 60% and 70%; 6, between 70% and 80%; 8, between 80% and 90%; and 1 audience voted 100%. In general the size of the vote is in inverse ratio to the size of the audience, which conforms to normal expectation.

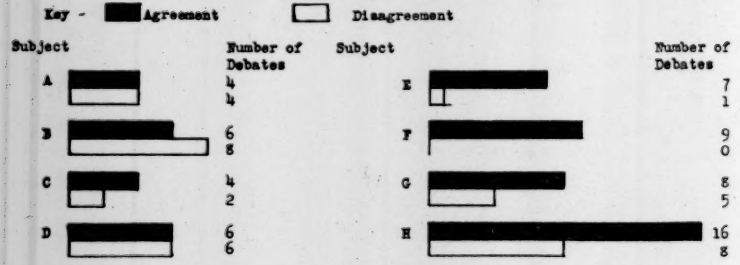
The voting percentage would be still higher were it not for the fact that these attendance figures represent counts made at the peak of attendance or estimates that are always liberal, and the further fact that only ballots voted both before and after the debate appear in the count. The voting percentage would be materially increased if the attendance figures showed only the number of persons present from beginning to end of the debate. Again, in some cases conditions were such that it was not advisable for the chairman to urge voting or even to call attention to the ballots and allow time for their use. It was in spite of all these and at times other untoward conditions that 66 of the 118 audiences voted over 50% and that none voted less than 20%.

III. Use of the audience vote to decide debates

Whether the change of opinion expressed by the audience is or is not a good method of deciding contest debates is of small significance. It seems hardly profitable to talk about just another method of adding forensic scalps to the war belt. However, in the 118 debates under discussion the tally of the change in audience opinion has been used as a decision. In 94 of these debates there were also judges (as noted above) who rendered decisions on the comparative effectiveness of debating. This method has seemed generally to be considered better for evaluating debating skill. Anyone who holds this presumption may draw what comfort he can from the record of *60* agreements between audience and judge and *34* disagreements, as here indicated.

CHART I

COMPARISON OF DECISIONS IN 94 DEBATES
JUDGED IN EACH CASE BY BOTH AUDIENCE AND JUDGE



If agreement with the judges is to be taken as the criterion of success, the case for audience judgment is even better than the figures indicate. There were instances of disagreement in which there were three judges, and the audience voted with the minority. On several occasions when there was disagreement the audience vote was a tie, while in a number of other cases a change of one or two ballots would have reversed the decision. It may well be that the minority judge and the audience better evaluated the work of the teams than did the other two judges. Many a time, also, a tie or a close vote is more just than a 1 to 0 decision.

But since when have judges become infallible? Who will say that a third of the time the audiences were wrong because they disagreed with the judges? In our superior wisdom the members of our instructional staff will testify that on a number of occasions of disagreement the audiences rendered the decision that better evaluated the effectiveness of debating! One suspicion that our observations tend to confirm is that judges as well as audiences are affected in their decisions by preconceived opinions or prejudices on the question. I do not maintain that observation of all this machinery at work and the statistics so far assembled prove a thing. But it is my feeling that in the long run debaters will as often get justice at the hands of audiences as judges, and I think much may be said for some method of measuring debating success by the expression of its effect on the opinion of the group of listeners.

Intercollegiate debating before home audiences is not under discussion. But personal observation, and evidence brought to

my attention from elsewhere tend to confirm the same conclusion relative to these conditions. Partisanship sometimes makes the decision a joke. But the method offers an excellent opportunity to train enthusiastic youth to express opinions honestly and to treat opponents fairly. Reasonable effort to do this seems generally to yield returns in discriminating judgment and justice to debaters.

IV. Analysis of the data on audience opinion

Vastly more important, however, than this question of the wisdom of using the audience vote to decide debates is the whole inquiry into the availability of this technique for recording and measuring audience response to public discussion, and the light it may throw on the behavior of audience opinion. I know of no other experimental data of this sort. I claim for them no conclusive findings, but I think they at least suggest sources of light on numerous problems of interest not only to teachers of public speaking, but also to those whose concern in any way relates itself to the influencing of public opinion through the channel of public address. Certainly its implications are not confined to the field of formal debate. The treatment of these considerations is dependent on the following condensed tabulation of the essential statistical material.

V. The Vote Before the Debates

The vote before the debates reveals some interesting things relative to public opinion in Cleveland. First, on every subject except the cancellation of war debts (H), there was a larger affirmative than negative vote. The vote against cancellation was more than three to one. On light wines and beer (G) the vote was almost two to one in favor of something to drink. In 1924 the city voted for LaFollette for president. On every one of these questions with the possible exception of the Geneva Protocol (B) the vote was what might have been expected of a LaFollette city. The returns appear to be a reflection of Cleveland opinion, not materially distorted by tendencies to vote merely in a spirit of raillery or gracious accommodation or in response to other such irrelevant and illogical stimuli.

Second, the first three questions were the only ones on which the undecided vote was larger than either the affirmative or the negative. These are the subjects about which the audiences may

Table I

Analysis of Shift-of-Opinion Ballots Secured in Western Reserve University "Forum" Debates Subjects

1924-25

A—Limitation of the power of the U. S. Supreme Court.

B—The U. S. should ratify the Geneva Protocol.

C—State provision for unemployment insurance.

1925-26

D—Condemnation of increasing tendency to restrict individual liberty.

E—Government ownership of coal mines.

F—Child labor amendment to the federal constitution.

1926-27

G—Amendment of Volstead Act to permit the sale of wine and beer.

H—Cancellation of war debts due the U. S.

Subject			Opinion Before Debate			Opinion After Debate			Opinion Unchanged					
	Number of Debates	Number of Voters	(-1) Affirmative	(0) Undecided	(-1) Negative	(-1) Affirmative	(0) Undecided	(-1) Negative	Number of Initial aff. unchanged	Percentage of Initial aff. unchanged	Number of Initial neutrals unchanged	Percentage of Initial neutrals unchanged	Number of Initial neg. unchanged	Percentage of Initial neg. unchanged
A	11	387	138	144	105	158	33	196	86	62.3–	22	15.3–	57	54.3–
B	14	447	114	256	77	217	46	184	52	45. –	35	13.7–	43	55.8–
C	7	202	52	123	27	78	32	92	32	61.5–	21	17.1–	14	51.9–
D	15	367	179	129	59	208	30	129	36	20.1–	17	13.2–	14	23.7–
E	9	293	154	86	53	190	24	79	43	27.9–	15	17.4–	18	34. –
F	12	281	149	85	47	177	32	72	31	20.8–	16	18.8–	7	14.9–
G	18	602	347	95	160	398	45	159	68	19.6–	13	13.9–	37	23.1–
H	32	961	170	244	547	226	103	632	51	30. –	44	18. –	135	24.9–
All Subjects	118	3540	1303	1162	1075	1652	345	1543	399	30.6–	183	15.8–	325	30.2–

TABLE I (Continued)

SUBJECT	OPINION STRENGTHENED				OPINION WEAKENED				NEUTRALS CHANGED			
	Number of initial aff. strengthened	Percentage of initial aff. strengthened	Number of initial neg. strengthened	Percentage of initial neg. strengthened	Number of initial aff. weakened	Percentage of initial aff. weakened	Number of initial neg. weakened	Percentage of initial neg. weakened	Number of initial neutrals changing to aff.	Percentage of initial neutrals changing to aff.	Number of initial neutrals changing to neg.	Percentage of initial neutrals changing to neg.
A	16	11.6–	33	31.4–	36	26.1–	15	14.3–	45	31.2–	77	53.5–
B	36	31.6–	19	24.7–	26	22.8	15	19.5–	118	46.1–	103	40.2
C	1	1.9–	2	7.4–	19	36.6	11	40.7–	38	30.9–	64	52.
D	107	59.8–	37	62.7–	36	20.1–	8	13.6–	58	45. –	54	41.8–
E	95	61.9–	22	41.5–	16	10.4–	13	24.5–	45	52.3–	26	30.3–
F	85	57. –	24	51.1–	33	22.2–	16	34. –	48	56.5–	21	24.7–
G	255	73.5–	86	53.8–	24	6.9–	37	23.1–	57	60. –	25	26.3–
H	81	47.7	344	62.9	38	22.3–	68	12.4–	67	27.5–	133	54.5
All Subjects	676	51.9–	567	52.7–	228	17.5–	183	17. –	476	40.9–	503	43.3–

reasonably be expected to have had least knowledge or personal feeling. Consequently the number of undecided voters doubtless should exceed the number of those who held an initial opinion, as it does.

Third, the percentage of the undecided vote before the debate is strikingly high in the cases of subjects B (57.2) and C (60.8) (Chart II). Just as striking is the very low percentage of the undecided vote on subject G, light wines and beer (15.78). These facts, too, conform to normal expectation.

CHART II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS BEFORE AND AFTER DEBATE

(Black Represents "Before;" White Represents "After.")

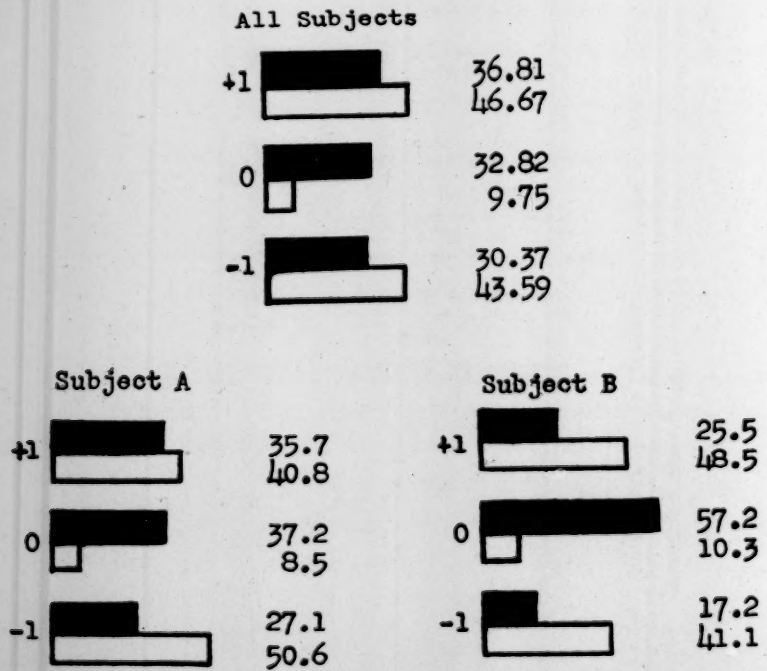
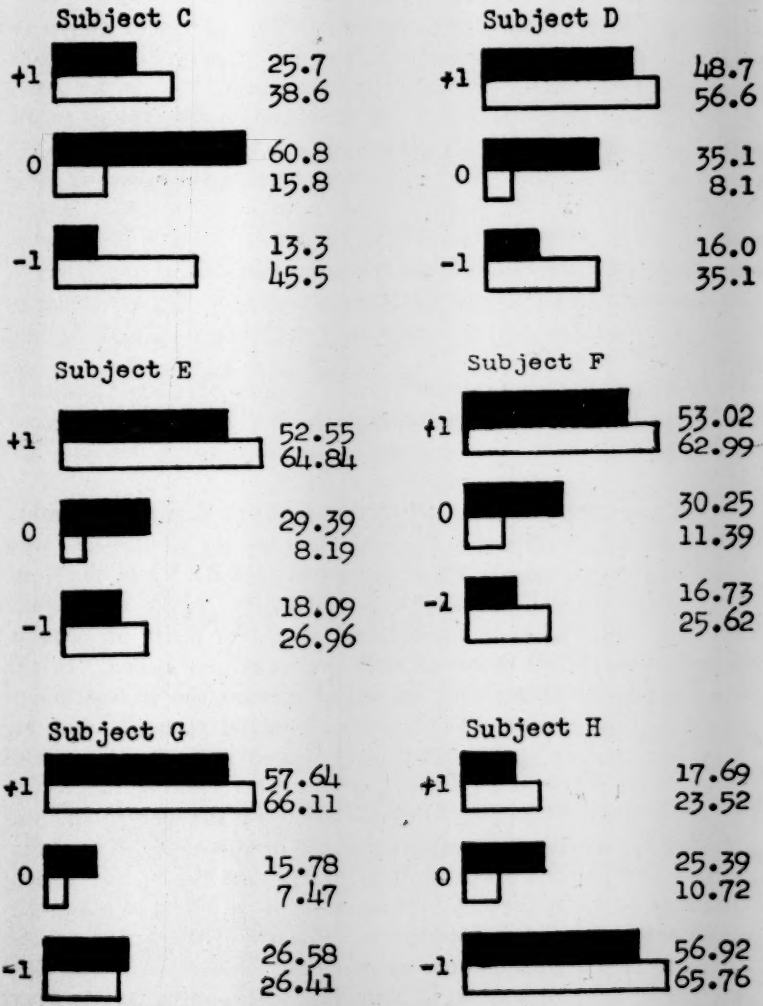


CHART II (Continued)

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS BEFORE AND AFTER DEBATE

(Black Represents "Before;" White Represents "After.")



VI. The Change of Opinion

Consideration of the vote after debate certainly tends to prove that the expressed change of opinion conforms also to normal expectation, admitting that debates may be expected at all to effect a change. I am now dealing with the total votes, not with the reactions of individuals. For example, the affirmative vote, after the debate, on subject A, consists in part of voters who were originally undecided or negative. No opinion group after debate consists only of voters originally in that group.

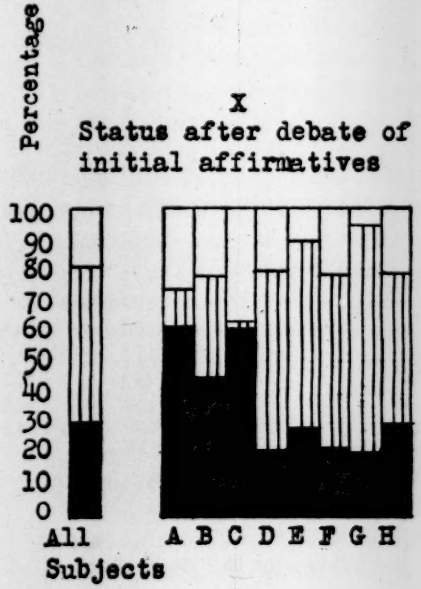
First, and most striking, is the approximate elimination on all subjects of the initial undecided group.

Second, it is notable that there is a percentage increase of both the affirmative and the negative groups in every instance except that of the negatives on subject G, in which case the decrease is but .17 of one per cent. This bears a relationship especially to the direction of movement of the neutrals, which approximates equality of affirmative and negative movement. (Table I, last group.)

Doubtless the most interesting and illuminating considerations are those that trace the individuals in the changes of opinion. The following chart gives a graphic presentation of the data involved.

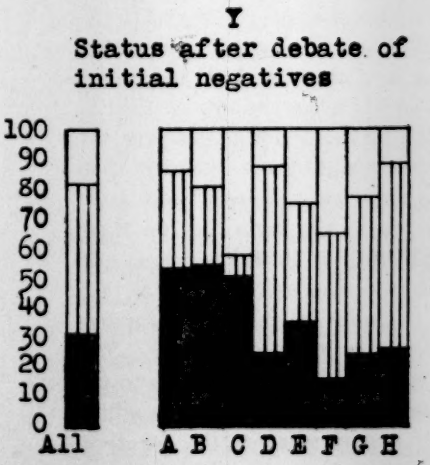
Let us consider first the group that make no change of opinion. (Black on Chart III.) Of the total number on all subjects who began undecided, only 15.8% remained so (III Z), while 30.6% of those whose initial opinion was affirmative made no change (III X), and 30.2% of the original negatives made no change. Somewhat over 1000 people in each group are on record. In the two groups that began with an initial opinion the inclination to persist in this opinion was of almost identical strength, and for every two individuals in this category there was only one initial neutral who persisted in remaining neutral. Viewing the record of the individual subjects, the variation in the percentage unchanged is surprisingly small in the case of those originally undecided (III Z). The lower limit is 13.2% and the upper, 18.8%. This may be an approximate general quantity index of the group whose state of mind is habitual indecision and those who can be moved to take a position only by more convincing proof than they can find in the presentation of both sides with approximately equal

CHART III
EFFECTS OF DEBATES UPON DIFFERENT TYPES OF OPINION



PERCENTAGES

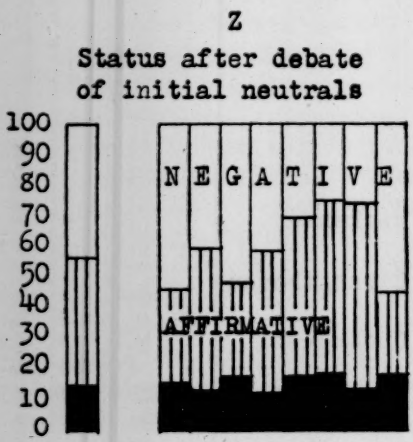
Subjects	Unchanged	Strengthened	Weakened
All	30.6	51.9	17.5
A	62.3	11.6	26.1
B	45	31.6	22.8
C	61.5	1.9	36.6
D	20.1	59.8	20.1
E	27.9	61.9	10.4
F	20.8	57	22.2
G	19.6	73.5	6.9
H	30	47.7	22.3



Subjects	Unchanged	Strengthened	Weakened
All	30.2	52.7	17
A	54.3	31.4	14.3
B	55.8	24.7	19.5
C	51.9	7.4	40.7
D	23.7	62.7	13.6
E	34	41.5	24.5
F	14.9	51.1	34
G	23.1	53.8	23.1
H	24.9	62.9	12.4

CHART III (Continued)
EFFECTS OF DEBATES UPON DIFFERENT TYPES OF OPINION

Z



PERCENTAGES

Subjects	Unchanged	Changed to Aff.	Changed to Neg.
All	15.8	40.9	43.3
A	15.3	31.2	53.5
B	13.7	46.1	40.2
C	17.1	30.9	52
D	13.2	45	41.8
E	17.4	52.3	30.3
F	18.8	56.5	24.7
G	13.9	60	26.3
H	18	27.5	54.5

skill under conditions of debate. Further investigation may possibly establish some such quantity factor as is shown in these figures.

Of those holding an opinion at the beginning the percentage that make no change varies much more from subject to subject. Taking each question separately, however, there is a narrow margin of difference between the original affirmatives and the original negatives in the percentage that make no change. (Chart III, X, Y.) Furthermore, the subjects fall into two distinct percentage groups, subjects A, B and C forming one group and all the others constituting another. Subjects A, B and C are strikingly typical in this respect. There is room for much speculation regarding the reason for this. It may be that the most significant interpretation relates to the fact that on these subjects the audiences were least well informed. This again has relation to the facts that on these subjects there was much less strengthening of initial opinions and somewhat more weakening of initial opinions. (Chart III, X, Y.) Apparently poverty of information not only is responsible for less strength of conviction but also for less capacity to change. The speaker is handicapped in the task of relating the unknown to the known. Here is something of a measure of the extent to which this expository task is increased. Or it may measure the debaters'

lack of ability! It may even bear out Goethe's utterance, "Against ignorance, the gods themselves strive in vain!"

And now, what happens to the people who express a change of opinion? Note first the original neutrals. On *a priori* grounds I think we would expect an approximate equality of movement toward the affirmative and toward the negative. For the entire group on all subjects the figures conform closely to this expectation, 40.9% going to the affirmative and 43.3% going to the negative. (Chart III, Z.) The different subjects show considerable variation. On all subjects except C the direction of the greater movement is toward the side showing the greater initial strength. Again several interpretations suggest themselves. One is that a stronger case in evidence and reasoning or emotional status is reflected in the results. Another is that among the original "undecided" voters were many whose inclinations, weak though they may have been, were with the prevailing side.

When it comes to changes among those who were affirmative or negative in attitude before the discussion, there is a distinctly different condition, as may well be anticipated. Almost exactly half of those who had an initial opinion finished with that opinion strengthened. (Chart III, X, Y.) And again in the difference between affirmatives and negatives is negligible—eight-tenths of one percent. The weakening of opinions is, as we would expect, a much more difficult task,—about three times as difficult. Seventeen per cent are less sure they were right. With regard to both the strengthening and the weakening of existing opinions, the variations shown in the records of the individual subject open possibilities of some illuminating interpretation. But perhaps most notable is the fact that subjects A, B and C show most of the atypical factors.

I wish to emphasize the limits of the conclusions to be drawn from the record I have submitted. I acknowledge the multitude of unconsidered factors influencing these results. But I believe there has been a sufficient control of important factors and a sufficient volume of data to warrant these preliminary interpretations and to suggest some possible quantity evaluations. Certainly there is some confirmation of many familiar hypotheses regarding public opinion and audience reaction. It appears that there actually happened what should have happened, admitting that undergradu-

ate debaters may be expected to have any effect on the opinions of audiences.

The same sort of evidence is available to a limited extent relative to situations in which the immaturity of the speakers is not a factor. For instance, Sir George Paish and Congressman Burton last year debated the cancellation of war debts under the auspices of the Cleveland Advertising Club before an adult male audience of 1000. Our shift-of-opinion ballot was used. The results did not differ materially from those secured in the debates I have discussed.

There seems to be little room for doubt that college debaters as well as congressmen and court advocates and advertising experts and evangelists do effect changes of opinion. Why should they not shift the center of gravity? Are the initial opinions they encounter so grounded in knowledge of the facts and in logically reasoned processes that they generally constitute perfectly stable convictions? I submit that it is reasonably safe to answer no. It would be interesting to know about what are the bases of the opinions held by Mr. General Citizen. We are beginning to seek some light on this problem from our audiences by giving them before the debates a test on facts, beliefs, and sources pertinent to the question. Four days after Lindberg landed in Mexico and after sixteen days of messages from Will Rogers in Mexico, an audience was given such a test before a debate on the protection of foreign investments. One statement they were to check as true or false was: "The United States has refused to recognize the government of Mexico and has recalled Ambassador Morrow after ten years of service at his post." Twenty-seven members of the audience gave us their answers. Twelve of the twenty-seven said this was true, or did not know! Yet these same twelve people expressed an opinion on the question. In the haste and complexity of present-day life, popular thinking on affairs other than those involving business and professional interests must generally have a very narrow factual basis. The multiplicity of things to know is bewildering; there is a vast number and variety of sources of information with their varying degrees of reliability. For the mass of people the most successful competition for attention seems to come from the headlines and the funny pages of the newspapers, the theater and the movie, the bridge table, the boxing arena, and

the golf course. The sources of opinion on the Nicaraguan affair may very widely be found to lie in such telling quips as Jack Raper's (Cleveland Press): "I see we are sending to Nicaragua one messenger of good will, and one thousand messengers of good kill."

The popular hypothesis that opinion on public questions is generally poorly grounded must be accompanied by the hypothesis that usually there is not strong conviction in these opinions, except as emotional urges come into play. Speakers of all sorts, even college debaters, then, should be expected to cause considerable change in the attitudes of their hearers. They may even do their audiences a service of enlightenment. The shift-of-opinion ballot seems to offer a technique that may yet throw some light on the problems of how best to perform this service.[1]

[1] I believe it would be profitable to supplement the local data here presented by similar material secured throughout the country on various subjects. In order that correlation may be possible, the same form of voting must be used. I shall appreciate assistance in carrying forward this project, and shall undertake to supply ballots to those who desire to coöperate.

FORM A

TO THE AUDIENCE

The debaters will appreciate your interest and help if you will, *both before and after the debate*, indicate on this sheet your PERSONAL OPINION on the IDEA PROPOSED FOR DEBATE.

Soon as the debate is finished, opportunity will be given you to question the debaters on any matters that pertain to the question.

BEFORE THE DEBATE

☐ I believe in the affirmative of the resolution to be debated.

☐ I am undecided.

☐ I believe in the negative of the resolution to be debated.

THE REASONS FOR MY OPINION ARE:

Date_____

Place_____

This blank is filled by a

☐ man ☐ woman, whose age is_____.

AFTER THE DEBATE

I have heard the entire discussion, and now

☐ I believe more strongly in the affirmative of the resolution than I did.

☐ I believe in the affirmative of the resolution.

☐ I am undecided.

☐ I believe in the negative of the resolution.

☐ I believe more strongly in the negative of the resolution than I did.

THE REASONS FOR MY OPINION ARE:

FORM B

(Data for debate of Mar. 17, 1927 is entered in the form.)

Subject	*Light Wines and Beer*				
Place	*Shaw-Hayden Theater Building*			Date	*3/17/27*
Organization	*Order of De Molay*			Attendance	*65*
Aff. Team: (1)	*Kowar*	(2) *Mulhauser*	(3)	*Colbert*	
Neg. Team: (1)	*Andorn*	(2) *Wanamaker*	(3)	*Green*	
Decision of Judge	*Mills G. Clark '16*	for the	*Aff.*	team	
Decision of Audience (Shift of opinion)	Aff.	*25*	Neg.	*8*	
" " " (Merits of debating)	Aff.----------		Neg.----------		

GROUP DISTRIBUTION

	Before	After	Increase	Decrease
Favorable	*20*	*25*	*5*	
Neutral	*11*	*3*		*8*
Opposed	*6*	*9*	*3*	
Total number of individual ballots:	*37*	% of attendance		*57*

DISTRIBUTION AFTER DEBATE OF THOSE WHO

			+2	+1	0	−1	−2
were the	*20*	original +1	*16*	*3*		*1*	
were the	*11*	original 0		*5*		*6*	
were the	*6*	original −1		*1*	*3*	*1*	*1*
		TOTALS	*16*	*9*	*3*	*8*	*1*

NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS WHOSE OPINION WAS

changed toward the Affirmative	*25*	=%	*68*—
changed toward the Negative	*8*	=%	*22*—
unchanged	*4*	=%	*10*+

FORM C

THE FORUM DEBATES
of the
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY TEAMS
SIXTH SEASON

Catechism

1. What are these debates?
   Public discussions of affairs that are of current interest and importance. See page 1.
2. Speakers—Who are they?
   Selected students of the University trained to investigate, reason, and speak. They are systematically directed in this study of the questions and are under constant training for public discussion.
3. Time—How long is a debate?

The arrangement most frequently used employs six speakers for an hour and a half. This may be changed, however, to almost any form and any length of discussion that will meet special needs.

4. Audience—What can it do?

Give attention and applause—(or hisses!) But more important:

VOTE—Before the debate begins, express personal opinion on the question to be discussed. A ballot is supplied for this purpose.

VOTE—When the debate ends, use the ballot again to express personal opinion on the question. Everybody is urgently requested to vote both times—before and after. The Department of Speech now has over 3000 such ballots on nine different questions. All assistance in adding to this material for study of the relationships of audience and speaker will be appreciated.

WRITE—On the ballots state reasons for the beliefs indicated by the VOTE. Also, on the inside of the ballot write comments helpful to the individual speakers.

DISCUSS—Take part in the discussions, especially by asking the debaters questions at the close of the formal debate.

5. Decisions—Are the debates judged?

Yes. The vote of the audience which shows the belief of the individuals on the question, expresses one verdict. Usually another is rendered by some graduate of Western Reserve who was a debater and is a member of Delta Sigma Rho, a national honorary forensic society.

To those who wish to secure a forum debate

Who can secure a debate?

Any club, fraternal order, or other group that can probably provide an interested audience.

Expense—How much is charged for a debate?

No fixed charge is made. For out-of-town debates at least reinbursement for traveling expenses will be expected. Where organizations find it practicable to make any payment for debates the assistance in financing this extension service will be appreciated.

Arrangements—How can a debate be secured?

Telephone or write to Professor Woodward or the Manager. Mail address: Western Reserve University. Phone: Cedar 3480.

THE FORUM

THE ENGLISH DEBATES

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: Some time ago, Stephen Leacock, in one of his more serious moments, joined the long list of those who have assailed inter-collegiate debating, particularly American debating, in print. He objected, as most other critics object, that all the preparation is done in the library, that such preparation is necessarily inadequate, that the debaters learn to quote the opinions of others instead of making up their own minds, and that the victory goes to "whatever side has more completely swallowed the census and makes a longer array of statistics." He suggests that the debater be "taken somewhere and given a glass of beer and a sausage."

This idea has been held, I believe, by most of the English debaters who have toured this country in the past five or six years. In their eyes, to enter a debate with a card-index box is like appearing at a pink tea in overalls and hobnails. Debating is a pleasant sort of intellectual exercise in which business methods are strictly taboo.

The partial acceptance of this attitude, as many have pointed out, has led to admirable changes in American debating. The primary benefit has been that the emphasis has been shifted from winning decisions to giving entertaining but fruitful discussions of important questions. Previously the victory was the thing; now, we tell one another, the subject's the thing. We thank the English, and quite rightly, for the change.

It has appeared to me in the last two or three years, however, that English debaters in this country have been carrying their attitude a step further. The question is no longer so important in their eyes. They are growing increasingly careless both in phrasing the proposition and in preparing for debates. When Oxford debated Cornell in 1923, the proposition was definite: This House disapproves the French occupation of the Ruhr. The methods of

the opposing teams contrasted sharply; Oxford was witty where Cornell was logical and dry; but the clash of opinion was evident throughout. It was evident, too, that the Englishmen had given the question careful thought and sincerely believed what they were saying. When Oxford met the University of Pittsburgh a year later, the proposition was less definite: This House believes that the interference of government in the affairs of the individual is a chief evil of the times. There was room here for misinterpretation. The Negative could have argued that while this is an evil, it is not a *chief* evil, because so many others, such as war, disease, famine, immorality, disobedience of law, etc., are more important. But the Negative did not; there was a clash of opinion; the debate was successful. So sincere were the members of the English team that Malcolm MacDonald insisted on opposing his fellow Oxonians, and he overcame them in the argument. A hint of a new attitude appeared, however, in the action of Mr. Woodruff, who was genuinely astonished when he read the proposition on the program, and confessed that he knew little or nothing about the subject.

Last year Washington University debated Oxford, Cambridge, and the University of Sydney. Each time we selected the most definite question, and had little trouble bringing about a clash of opinion, although it was noted in several instances that visiting debaters seemed to know little about the subject under discussion.

This year we have not been so fortunate. Cambridge suggested two questions that seemed interesting: (1) That the power of the press has increased, is increasing, and should be diminished; and (2) That the ethics of the business world are incompatible with sound morality. The first proposition manifestly contains three separate questions: Has the power of the press increased? Is it increasing? Should it be diminished? The first two are questions of fact; besides they are not worth debating. The last is good, and was, I take it, the point at which the clash of opinion centered. The first two should therefore have been left out as irrelevant.

We chose the second proposition. We found, after some study, that it might be interpreted in various ways. It might mean that modern business practice is unethical; it might mean that the ethical codes adopted by business organizations are not

compatible with a definite system of morality, such as the Christian system; it might mean that even if business codes are based on Christian principles, Christian principles are unsound. Unluckily, we chose the second interpretation.

The Cambridge team arrived. One of the first sentences to leave the mouth of Mr. Foot was, "Of course we mean that modern business practice is unethical." The debate, naturally, brought forth little clash of opinion and was rather poor.

A short time later we received a list of questions from the team representing the National Union of British Students. We chose this: That this House condemns the popular belief that national independence is either possible or desirable. It is evident on first sight that the possibility of national independence is undebatable. The only clash there must come on the definition of the term "national independence." Accept one definition, and it's possible; accept another, and it's impossible. We searched for a definition. We found no authority on Political Science or International Law who defines that term. We found only one who uses it at all; he employs it once in a parenthetical remark. With the aid of the head of the Political Science Department we finally worked out a definition by combining the most generally accepted meanings of "national" and "independence." When we found that according to that definition national independence is possible, we went on to build up an argument showing its desirability.

The English team arrived. Mr. Haddon looked at the question as printed on the program and remarked that it seemed involved. I asked him immediately who worded that question. "I did," he said. I asked him what it meant. He answered that he didn't quite know. The debate started. The British Union team evaded any definition of terms, but implied that "national independence" meant absolute isolation. The Washington team stated, quite correctly, that under that definition there could be no debate as to its possibility; absolute isolation is evidently impossible. The discussion went on, the English speakers rambling from one topic to another without bringing out any clash of opinion except as to the definition of terms. On that issue they refused to debate.

In the open forum discussion afterward, Mr. Haddon was

asked what the term "national independence" meant to him. He refused to give a satisfactory answer, arguing that a definition of the term is impossible, that no authority can define it, that in his college it is a capital offense to define terms, that nothing can be accurately defined in the English language (he prefers Latin), and that he had worded the question simply with the idea of "giving us something to talk about."

It is needless to say that the debate was a failure. The audience left more mystified than ever. The Englishmen, it was plain, knew very little about the subject. The subject had been chosen simply to give them something to talk about.

This is, perhaps, a logical extension of the English attitude toward debating. But it is, in my opinion, indefensible, and will do more harm than good if adopted in America. To have the question rather than the decision the center of attention is good; it is not good to have attention centered on the way the debaters talk. If the question is to remain the important thing, it must be stated clearly; it must keep to the point; and it must offer a definite clash of opinion. Wit, eloquence, mental agility, and polish do not demand an indefinite question. A clear-cut issue is essential for any type of debate and any type of discussion. And there cannot be a clear-cut issue if the terms are indefinable.

No one has a right to invite an audience to hear a debate if the debaters look upon the question at issue simply as a necessary evil, and vie with each other to talk entertainingly about nothing in particular. The debate not only offers little instruction; it often gives little entertainment, for much of the effect of humor arises from its aptness, its precise application to the subject discussed. In addition, the educational value to the individual debater is small. He discovers that he need look no farther than to the pages of "Life," "Judge," and "Punch" for his material. Such training unfits him not only for participating in American debates, but also for doing any effective speaking in later life.

There is, I believe, a golden mean between the old style of American debating, with its emphasis on winning at any cost, and the latest style of English debating, with its disregard of the question. Debating is ideal when the teams discuss a clear-cut question after adequate preparation in such a way that the audience is instructed and entertained. Debating for the sake of beating someone else is bad; talking just for the sake of talking

is equally bad. In general, American debating, having adopted the best of the English attitude, is approaching the golden mean. To adopt the absurdities of that attitude would be folly. Debating in this country would then be in a far worse condition than it was before the first English team passed the Statue of Liberty.

Very truly yours,

RAYMOND F. HOWES, *Washington University*

PRESIDENT PEASE ON EDUCATION

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: I wonder how many teachers of argumentation happened to read the inaugural address of President Pease of Amherst? I wonder how many of those who did were impressed with the pertinency of some of the things he said to the subject they are teaching? I quote from the report in the *New York Times:*

> It is not, then, the vocation of a liberal college to fit men for life by furnishing them facts and opinions in convenient packages ready for use, nor is it an irremediable calamity if a student's work in after-life should lie in some field in which the college gave him no direct instruction. What the college should do—and what it must do, if it is to justify its existence and fulfill the hopes of its friends—is to train students to think aright.
>
> By thinking aright I do not mean the holding on all subjects of opinions which the college (as represented by its trustees or officers or teachers or student body, or some of them) accepts, but rather the ability to ascertain facts and to draw from them conclusions which are logically sound.
>
> In every college course there must be a large place given to the acquisition of facts.... The all-important thing is that by doing thoroughly a single piece of work, from the ground up, the student should develop the ability to collect and control his data; should learn to co-ordinate, subordinate and logically interrelate them; should gain a respect for underlying principles solidly based on facts, but in value, both educationally and intrinsically, far transcending that of the facts alone; and, finally, should be stimulated to respect an enthusiasm for work of patient and precise observation, comprehensive generalization and finish of expression, whether his own or that of another.

Now, without attempting to argue the point, it is my very deliberate judgment that in nowise can students be taught to think aright—to collect and correlate facts, and to reason soundly from them—as in a course in argumentation and especially in

brief drawing. Other courses attempt these ends indirectly; argumentation directly. Compared with a course in formal logic there cannot be the slightest question which has the greater value, both as mental training and in practical application.

Teachers of argumentation may well take heart from this fresh tribute to the value of the work they are doing.

Very truly yours,

RALPH CURTIS RINGWALT

A PLEA FOR THE SHORT HIGH SCHOOL DEBATE

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: Out in the Middle West, that respectable and energetically progressive region that some observers claim is the most representative part of America, I had grown up on the long debate. In this agricultural region which furnishes most of the bread of the world and boasts of Red River valleys and tall corn, there was a liking for high school debates of almost two hours' duration. Or was it merely a custom? Perhaps it was because of this energetically progressive nature of the people or their "radical" tendencies that the love for discussion and argument found favor in the longer forensic performances. Whether Middle Westerners are naturally more loquacious, or whether it takes a longer time to convince them, it is difficult to say with any assurance. At any rate, whatever may have been the underlying cause, the customary limits for a debate were (and still are in most cases) ten or twelve minutes for constructive argument (three speakers on a side), and five minutes in rebuttal for the first two speakers, with either five or seven minutes in rebuttal for the concluding speaker on each side.

This was the system that had been used in my experience in high schools in Minnesota and South Dakota, and so ingrained was that system in me that I hardly conceived of any other. But for the past year or so I have been coaching debate in Ohio, where the high schools in this vicinity have a different conception. I was surprised when I learned of the arrangements. Teams are composed of either two or three speakers. By the two-man arrangement each speaker is given eight or ten minutes in constructive argument and three or four minutes in rebuttal, or three for the first speakers on each side, and three, four, or five for the last

speakers. By the three-man arrangement, each debater speaks eight minutes in main argument and three minutes in rebuttal for the first two speakers, and four minutes for the last speaker, or simply three minutes each for the three.

There are several advantages of this time-saving, which I will briefly indicate. The common layman who attends the debates, and the student as well, are united in favor of the short debate. In talks with men and women, and boys and girls, who compose audiences at debates, I find the verdict is almost unanimous for the shorter debate. Attendance is thereby augmented. Here is one cure, at least, for our meagre audiences, if we desire to draw larger crowds, and I assume we do.

Attention is keener at the shorter debate. At best we human beings, even the most fertile minds among us, can hold our attention to a thing but a relatively short time, as psychologists will verify. All of us are aware of the restlessness of audiences at a debate after one hour has gone by. Since debate is intellectual in its content, the audience will derive as much, and probably more because the attention is less likely to flag. Therefore, the educational values of the short debate are as great, if not greater, and since debates aim to be of educational value to audiences, this is a worthy consideration.

The short debate is of more benefit to the debater. At first blush it might seem that the short debate conduces to inadequate preparation. Can issues be supported in so short a time? But the slogan, "The team that is prepared wins," applies to the short debate as well as to the long. Preparation for the short debate is painstaking and exact because the argument must be so condensed. There is greater penalty to be incurred by the debater or team that spends its time on irrelevancies. The debater must eliminate much in squeezing his arguments into the narrow time span. It has been my observation that better proof is submitted, or, if you will, the best proof is submitted. There is much to be gained through condensation. If it is true that a short speech requires more skill, better thought, better selection and organization, than a long speech, the same applies to a debate. We have for a long time gone on the assumption that it takes a long time to get an argument across. If it takes a long time to give, that much is lost in interest. A few clean-cut statements will go further than long, in-

volved arguments. An argument that goes swiftly to the heart of the matter is better than abstruse logic.

The short debate takes on more snap and drive, and is therefore more beneficial to the debater and more interesting to the listener. These short debates are more exciting, more electric, since they are compact and unified. They gain much, through compression, in unity, coherence, and emphasis, the three gods of the rhetoricians. The rebuttal is sharper. There is more fire, more vitality, more life. There is the opposition and battle-zest of a give-and-take at close quarters. There is hard and clean debating. Debaters, in Roosevelt's words, "play fair, but hit the line hard."

The time has come, I believe, when, if Debate is to live and to justify its life, it must do something to attract students and public without sacrificing its inherent values. The short debate is one way of effecting this. Americans to-day want short stories, short speeches, and short debates.

On the whole, I think the short debate is superior in respect to the debater, to debate technique, and to the audience. We will gain much by adopting it.

Very truly yours,

RAYMOND H. BARNARD, *Lakewood High School*,
Cleveland, O.

THE HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH NOTEBOOK

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: Speech, as a distinct course, is beginning to be introduced into the high schools of two hundred pupils or less. In many of these cases the courses are introduced by superintendents who know little or nothing about speech as a curricular subject, but who, nevertheless, feel that students should have some training in public speaking and better speech. It is small wonder, then, that when the teacher enters the building for the first time the superintendent presents him with a textbook purchased from the first salesman who happened along; one of many textbooks for secondary schools which do not meet the accepted standards of speech. Not only is the textbook inadequate, but to make matters worse, the library facilities in these schools, especially as they relate to speech, are non-existent. Thus the teacher, con-

fronted by this two-fold problem of inadequate textbook and library, must rely on his own ingenuity to discover a means of bringing the course up to standard.

The author, during her teaching career, met exactly this situation. A notebook was developed which was particularly adapted to a defective textbook and inadequate library, and which raised the standard of the course to a respectable level. This notebook was divided into five parts: How to Study, Assignments, Class Notes, Outlines, and New Words. The "How to Study" section was devoted to an outline which made suggestions applicable not only to speech but to other courses, as to the most efficient method of preparing assignments, such as: understand the assignment, be interested, concentrate, etc.

The second division was reserved for writing the advanced assignments. In this way the pupils could not plead that they had forgotten or misunderstood the work for the next day.

The part of the notebook reserved for class notes was much more than a sponge which the students might squeeze at examination time. This section overcame most of the deficiencies of text and library. For instance, if the text did not include what seemed to be clear instructions for outlining, these were supplied along with good outlines; in short, wherever the book was found to be lacking, the students were supplied with mimeographed sheets, or lectures, which rounded out the work. At various intervals, examples of good speeches and material to memorize were necessary. Since neither the text nor the library furnished these, the teacher supplied them to the pupils, who, in turn, pasted them into this section. In this way, the "Class Notes" division brought the standard of the course up the scale.

The fourth section, that reserved for outlines, was used for writing the outline of each speech delivered during the course of the year, thus furnishing the students with a handy file for reference, and a measure of advancement.

The "New Words" division (and learning new words was made an important part of the course), contained a list of words, and their logical definitions, with which the student had familiarized himself during the school year. Then, in order that these words might become a part of the student's vocabulary, certain class periods were devoted to their use.

The first result of the use of this notebook was the raised standard of the course which made it compare favorably with those given in the larger high schools. The person who has never worked with a text of inferior quality and almost no library facilities can scarcely understand the necessity of doing something to develop the work in speech. But by using a notebook similar to the one described, if the text omits certain work, it can be supplied; if certain parts are obscure, they can be clarified. If examples of model outlines or speeches are not to be found in the text or library these can be given the students and retained in their books. This can be done at very little expense. A notebook is not costly. The mimeographed sheets, which are convenient but not necessary, are inexpensive. It does not take a great deal of class time since most of the work is done outside of class hours. In all, the notebook is a simple and effective means of bringing a speech course up to standard.

The notebook is of great value in that it tends to unify the class, or bind them into a social unit; an accomplishment which aids greatly in successful teaching. Each person in the class must do the same thing that the other members are doing. This performance of the same task by a group tends to make them one. When each person must prepare an outline on "Business" and have it criticized in class, he feels a greater amount of sympathy for the other members of the class. But it must be understood that this doing of the same thing by the same people does not destroy individual initiative or accomplishment. A's notebook, while it will contain the same things as B's, may be much different in conception and execution. Or A's outline on "Business" will be much different from B's. Thus, preparing the same assignment in their own way, tends to weld individuals of varying tastes and standards into a homogeneous group for the course of the class hour.

Another reason for using this notebook is the very practicable one that it stiffens the course. Any one who knows high school students, realizes that they desire to pass a caurse with as little work as possible. A speech course which draws all of its work from the text, and especially one that contains little more than reading matter, is not apt to be very hard. If the students are required to

keep a notebook, and are rigorously held to it, the course is not one to be taken without some forethought.

Finally, many incidental advantages accrue to the person who performs this work well: he improves his spelling; his work becomes neater; he learns the use of margins and notations.

Very truly yours,

ETHEL INGERMAN, *Onawa High School*
Onawa, Iowa

ETHEL BARRYMORE ON STAGE PRONUNCIATION

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: Your readers who have been interested in recent discussions of standardization in American pronunciation will also be interested in a statement which Ethel Barrymore recently made in the November number of *Personality*. Miss Barrymore said:

> There is one fundamental, all-important requisite to success on the stage, which is far too often over-looked. Before you can begin to act you must learn to speak correct English. I don't mean merely grammatically correct. I mean with a complete absence of any recognizable accent. If you speak with a southern drawl, a western burr or a Yankee twang, you aren't ready for the stage. And I don't mean that you should learn to speak with an English accent either. You must learn to speak that international, unaccented English which is the common possession of educated people in all parts of the English-speaking world. The importance of this cannot be exaggerated; it is the foundation upon which you will build your stage career.

Very truly yours,

SOPHIE A. PRAY, *New York City*

A CORRECTION

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Dear Sir: I should like to call your attention to two errors in my paper *Recent Discussions of Standardization in American Pronunciation* which appeared in the last QUARTERLY JOURNAL. The printer apparently assumed that [a] and [ɑ] are interchangeable; whereas they represent different sounds. Thus on page 448 "broad a" [a] should be "broad a" [ɑ]. On page 451, line 8, aftənu'n should be ɑftənu:n.

Very truly yours,

C. K. THOMAS, *Cornell University*

ASSOCIATION NEWS

A WORD FROM THE PRESIDENT

I am grateful to Editor Hunt for the opportunity of sending a message not only to the attendants of the Cincinnati convention, but to all members of the association.

That message is one of thanks for the honor of the office, and joy for the opportunity of service.

Of course I am happy and glad to accept the presidency of the National Association of Teachers of Speech. For I am glad to serve in a line of such splendid succession. The very effort to keep the presidency on the high plane upon which it has been placed by my illustrious predecessors must bring forth much service, some of which may be worth while.

I am glad too, of the opportunity for service which goes with the office. The great satisfaction in any administrator's office is a chance to help the organization. With us this is doubly true for to improve our association is to improve our profession. And that service, no matter what it is, if well done is a profit to every one. So the progress and improvement of our association is felt in every institution, and in the end by every student. Then the first aim of our association is realized. Then, in a measure do we all realize, not only the great satisfaction, but the durable satisfaction of our profession: the joy of seeing our students improve.

And now to reverse the line of thought, going back from the individual student to the national organization. First there is the unfolding, the growth, the improvement of our students, improvement of the teacher, improvement of the subject, and its place in the curriculum, improvement of our journal, and the improvement of our association. In this series the president is merely the servant of all. And he may the better serve with the help of all. Will you, therefore, while the matter is fresh in your mind, sit down and write him a letter

of suggestions and criticisms? Any idea, any plan for the improvement of our association, any criticisms or suggestions about the program and the procedure of the convention will be received with a grateful and open mind.

As this word is written during the first days of the New Year, the new president takes the opportunity of wishing you a happy and successful year. May you be happy in your work, and successful in most of your efforts.

J. P. RYAN, *Grinnell College*

SECRETARY'S MINUTES OF THE BUSINESS PROCEEDINGS OF THE TWELFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

Cincinnati, December 28, 29, 30, 1927

DECEMBER 28

The annual address of the President, the reports of the Editor and the Business Manager of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL, and the report of the Committee on Terminology are appended to these minutes. President Weaver appointed as a committee to formulate "project programs" for future work of the Association: O'Neill (Chairman), Bryngelson, Drummond, Mabie, West.

The President presented the recommendation of the Executive Council that no member should serve on the nominating committee for two consecutive years. This recommendation was adopted by the Association.

Balloting for the nominating committee resulted as follows: Ryan (Chairman), Drummond, Ewbank, Hunt, Mabie.

The President appointed as auditing committee: Lardner (Chairman), Hopkins, Van Wye.

DECEMBER 29

President Weaver appointed as committee on resolutions: Densmore (Chairman), Bryngelson, Hill, Hudson, Tilroe.

DECEMBER 30

President Weaver presented the following recommendation from the Executive Council: Resolved, that the National Association of Teachers of Speech endorse the American Society for the

Study of Speech Disorders. This resolution was adopted by the Association.

Chairman Densmore presented the report of the committee on resolutions, as follows:

Your Committee desires to present the following resolutions, and to move their adoption:

1. *Be it resolved* that this Association express its appreciation and congratulations to President Andrew T. Weaver and his co-workers for their administration, culminating in the splendid program of this Convention.

2. *Be it resolved* that we express our appreciaition to our Treasurer and Business Manager, H. L. Ewbank, for the arduous and efficient administration of his office, and to Editor E. L. Hunt for his valuable service in maintaining the THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION as a creditable expression of the life and growth of the Association.

3. *Be it resolved* that we express appreciation to Professor B. C. Van Wye of the University of Cincinnati for his services in making local arrangements for our convention.

4. *Be it resolved* that we instruct our Secretary to convey to Professor Phidelah Rice our thanks for his distinguished contribution to the program of this convention.

5. *Be it resolved* that the Secretary of the Association be instructed to express by letter to the Hotel Sinton, the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, and the newspapers of Cincinnati our appreciation for their co-operation and for the many courtesies extended to the Association.

6. *Be it resolved* that we recommend to the incoming executive council that the Department of Speech at the University of Minnesota be requested to arrange for a speech conference in connection with the meetings of the National Education Association to be held at Minneapolis next summer.

7. *Be it resolved* that our Association, through its President, request the officers of the National Education Association to provide on one of the general session programs of their Minneapolis Convention, a place for a speaker from the National Association of Teachers of Speech, and that our Executive Council be instructed to name such speaker.

8. *Be it resolved* that we instruct the Secretary of the Associ-

ation to express to Thomas C. Trueblood, Professor Emeritus of Public Speaking at the University of Michigan, our regret that he was unable to be present at this Convention.

9. *Be it resolved* that we have heard with sadness of the death by accident of Professor S. H. Clark; and that we extend to his family our sympathy, with a tribute to his long and influential service as a teacher of Public Speaking and Reading, and with a tribute to him as a vigorous and inspiring personality.

G. E. DENSMORE
BRYNG BRYNGELSON
H. T. HILL
H. H. HUDSON
H. M. TILROE

This report was accepted by the Association.

Professor Lardner presented the report of the auditing committee. Report accepted.

Professor Drummond presented the report of the nominating committee, presenting the following nominations:

President: John P. Ryan, Grinnell College.

Secretary-Treasurer-Business Manager: H. L. Ewbank, University of Wisconsin.

First Vice-President: Davis Edwards, University of Chicago.

Second Vice-President: Virginia Rowell, Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles.

Third Vice-President: C. C. Cunningham, North Carolina State College.

Member of Executive Council (term of three years): Henrietta Prentiss, Hunter College.

The committee recommended that "the committee on the Constitution consider the advisability of adding to the Executive Council two memberships especially designed first, for normal schools, and second, for high schools."

All nominees were declared elected and the entire report was accepted.

New Business

At the suggestion of President Weaver, Professor Winans moved that a committee on constitution and by-laws be appointed. Motion seconded and adopted.

Miss Cotrel moved that the incoming President appoint a

committee to consider the advisability of establishing a filing system for the registration of teachers of speech, the files to be available to employers of such teachers. Professor Drummond offered as an amendment to this motion that the matter be referred to the Secretary-Treasurer-Business Manager for his consideration. Amendment adopted, also the motion as amended.

Editor Hunt introduced a resolution that the word "Education" be dropped from the title of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION. Seconded and carried.

Editor Hunt then moved that the word "Quarterly" be eliminated from the title. This motion was defeated.

Mr. Monroe moved that the new President be instructed to allow more time for discussion after papers are read on the programs. There was no second to this motion.

Miss Ehresmann introduced a discussion as to the possibility of sending a delegate from the Association to the international speech conference to be held in Vienna, July, 1928. Professor West moved that the President be empowered to appoint official delegates to allied conferences as he deemed advisable. Motion seconded and carried. Meeting adjourned.

Respectfully submitted,

LOUIS EICH, *Secretary*

ANNUAL ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT

ANDREW THOMAS WEAVER
Cincinnati 1927

In conformity with our quaint and delightful practice of reversing the divine order and allowing retiring presidents to deliver the inaugural addresses of their successors, I shall now undertake to do as well for him who shall come after me as President Mabie did for me last year. Really, there are some obvious advantages in permitting the outgoing President to propose a list of projects which ought to be undertaken. A realization that one does not have to carry out the program himself, frees one's fancy and makes it possible for him to see all sorts of interesting and profitable plans which ought to be adopted.

President Mabie in his farewell address last year, presented six planks out of which he constructed an admirable platform.

May I remind you briefly of these planks, and consider with you what we have done about them? The proposals were as follows:

1. The sectional organization of our convention program should be continued. You will have noted by looking over the program that we have worked on this principle and have not only continued the sectional organization, but in some small degree at least we have expanded it.
2. The Association should undertake a more active membership campaign. Although our membership has been constantly augmented, I do not believe we can truthfully say that as an organization we have done much toward carrying out this proposal so vital to our life as an association. The increase in membership has come about very largely through the splendid efforts of our Treasurer and Business Manager, and through the assistance which individual members of the Association have been able to render in rather isolated instances. If even half of our present members now numbering between 1500 and 1600 would constitute themselves press agents and solicitors for the Association, we could soon expand to a membership of 10,000. I suggest that it is thoroughly desirable to give the Business Manager all possible assistance in any program which may be devised for increasing our membership remembering always that there is no adequate substitute for personal solicitation.
3. The QUARTERLY JOURNAL should be so edited as to make an appeal to the maximum number of teachers in our field. I am sure that this suggestion is always in the minds of the editors of the JOURNAL and that they are anxious to have all of the helpful advice which anyone may be able to give on this point. Of course the real issue is: What is the proper balance between material which will necessarily have a limited appeal to those with scholarly interests and material which will reach the greater number of teachers who are seeking practical help in the performance of their daily tasks? I know that the editors of the JOURNAL have sometimes been reluctant to accept manuscripits on the ground that similar materials have previously appeared iin the pages of the JOURNAL. It might be wise to consider

the fact that previous issues of the JOURNAL usually mean nothing to those who were not on the subscription list when the previous issues appeared. I, for one, feel that there is little to be lost through the repetition of matters of fundamental importance and much to be gained.

4. Research monographs should be published separately from the JOURNAL. I suppose that in electing a special editor and legislating as we did last year, we have made adequate provision for carrying out this proposal.
5. Special committee investigations, such as that published by Professor Drummond's committee several years ago, should be continued and others similar to it should be undertaken. I can well remember Professor O'Neill's presidential address in 1915, when he said that he felt sure we should be spared the blight of unanimity for some time to come. I take it that, while there are many matters on which we do not yet see eye to eye, we have made substantial progress toward a harmony of viewpoints in certain fundamentals such as the content of high-school courses, correct procedure in the diagnosis and treatment of speech defects, the organization and conduct of college courses, etc. It seems to me greatly to be desired that just as rapidly as we can arrive at agreements, these agreements should be made available to the profession at large as the authentic opinions of this Association.
6. New methods of financing "a working program" should be devised. President Mabie announced that several institutions, through their representatives, had pledged considerable sums toward a contemplated fund.

When I came into the Presidency, these proposals were before me and in various ways I was made aware of strong opinion in certain quarters that I had been charged with the responsibility of carrying forward this expansion program. After a year of experience in the duties of the office, I aver that, no President can be expected to do much single-handed, by correspondence, in developing and expanding the influence of our Association. No teacher who is faced with the necessity of earning his living while he serves the Association, can do much more than attend to the routinie duties of his office. Such trivial but important details as

making arrangements with hotels, securing reduced railways rates, corresponding with officers of other academic organizations, setting up the program, distributing the program, etc., take all of the time that any teacher with a full time academic job on his hands can devote to them.

When I was urged by certain interested parties to go forward with the work of soliciting an operating fund of from two to five-thousand dollars, I began to seek information as to what was to be done with the money when it had been collected. I am obliged to report that I nowhere found any very definite notion as to how this money ought to be expended, and in view of this condition, it seemed to me inexpedient to collect the money. To go about asking willing members of the Association for contributions to an operating fund without any program for the expenditure of the fund, seemed to me illogical and unpersuasive. Please understand me. I am not asserting that there were no conceivable ways in which this money could have been used to advantage, I am simply submitting the sober fact that no such plans had been made and that I found myself unable either to work out the plans or to persuade anybody else to do so. I believe that the Association must in some way, very definitely formulate its expansion program before the officers attempt to raise the operating fund. This plan once formulated must be committed to the hands of someone other than the President or the Business Manager, at least until the Association is in a position to pay one of these officers a salary which will enable him to devote himself exclusively to the work of his Association office.

This year I have had the opportunity to observe the Business Manager at work, and I want to say that his task has developed with the growth of the Association until it has reached back-breaking proportions. Some sort of substantial relief must soon be devised and put into effect or the Association will suffer.

Now for some platform suggestions on which I should like the members of the Association to meditate and to take such action as they may deem advisable.

1. Regional organization of our membership into subsidiary groups or conferences to operate as sections of the National Association, in the several localities over which our membership is at present distributed.

a. The New England Conference—this is already a going concern.
b. The Western or Pacific Conference—this was organized several years ago at the University of California. Its present state of repair is not known to me, but certainly we have membership enough out on the Pacific coast to go forward with such a conference.
c. The Southwestern Conference. There are now strong state organizations in several states in that locality.
d. The Northwestern Conference. Several of the states in the Northwest have state organizations, which might be combined and expanded into a sectional conference.
e. The Southern Conference.
f. The Mountain Conference.

When we remember that the National Association itself started with 17 charter members, and has increased nearly 1000% since then, I believe that we must admit the feasibility of getting live, going, organizations started in the various parts of the country. I think that the National Association should, just as soon as possible, adopt a plan of meeting in rotation with these regional conferences. Our organization is now large enough to bring such a proposal within the range of possibility, and I believe that if we were to adopt the plan we would speedily find that it would bring large increases in our membership.

2. We should seek to develop all possible connections between our Association and other similar National and International groups. It was a very real disappointment to me that we were unable to have a representative present at the International Conference held in England last month. American physicists, chemists, historians, philosophers, and linguists, all conduct their work in the light of what is going on among their fellows in other countries. We should do likewise, and seek out the many mutual advantages available in such coöperation.

3. We should engage in an active campaign of propaganda among school and college administrators. We should overlook no available means of getting distinguished members of our Association on the programs in conventions of Presidents, Deans, Superintendents, and Principals. We should see to it that scholarly, worthwhile articles by members of our Association are published in

Journals which are read by the administrative officials of schools and colleges. Out of the somewhat melancholy experience of this year, I have been convinced that the president hasn't time to accomplish what should be done along this line. As far back as last February, I began the attempt to get some speaker from our organization on the program of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. meeting in Boston next April. After a discouraging exchange of letters with various dignitaries who, one by one, turned out not to be the right ones for the purpose, I was finally informed about a month ago that we were too late to get anyone on the program. Other special interests, such as Art, Music, Industrial Education, and whatnot, are represented on these programs. Lack of information on the part of school superintendents, is the one most salient reason for the unsatisfactory conditions now prevailing in high-school speech work.

4. This association should undertake the preparation of bulletins for state and federal bureaus and departments, which are willing to spread abroad among interested parties, our recommendations for different phases of speech work. The United States Bureau of Education is now calling for precisely this sort of material. This is a golden opportunity which should not be overlooked.

5. We should plan just as quickly as possible for a full-time paid assistant in the office of our Business Manager. I believe that if this Association were to hire such an assistant Business Manager who would work under the direction of the Business Manager, and carry forward a membership campaign, that such an assistant would quickly secure enough new memberships to cover his own salary. It is certain that the membership at large little appreciates the arduous character of the tasks which the Business Manager performs from day to day. The Business Manager is now carrying a load of association business at least equivalent to one full-time job. This is more than we should ask of anybody.

6. One of the crying needs of the Association is for a revision of our Constitution and By-laws in the light of legislation passed since their adoption twelve years ago. I doubt whether there is any other organization as large and important as ours, whose fundamental law is in such a scandalous state of confusion. We need a committee which will go back over the records of our annual

meetings, consider all of the resolutions which have been passed, and then bring in a new Constitution and new by-laws embodying all of the basic sanctions under which we are now operating.

When a new Constitution has been drawn up and approved by the Association, we must give up our hit-or-miss way of amending it. We have now reached a state where any convention is practically a law unto itself. This does not make for orderliness of procedure or continuity of policy.

We need to establish archives in which complete records will be available, and when we have made adequate provision for the keeping of complete records, let us see to it that such records are actually kept. In many cases the secretaries' minutes are fragmentary and inadequate. For example, so far as I have been able to determine, there is nowhere available, any record of the attendance at five of the eleven Conventions preceding this. We not only do not know who were present, we do not even know how many were present.

I am conscious of the limitations of government by committees, but I do not know of any way in which the work of the Association can be done except through committees. I therefore earnestly recommend that committees be created to consider as many of the foregoing proposals as the Association may feel merit such treatment, and to report at the 1928 Convention.

The year 1927 has brought a number of developments upon which we as a profession, can look with a sense of pride and gratification. Among these are: the two international conferences of speech workers which have been held, one in London and one in Vienna, and the notable changes which have occurred in the Universities of Minnesota and Michigan. At Minnesota under the leadership of Professors Rarig and Morse, our work has finally been taken out of the Department of English and given its autonomy as a Department of Speech. The Department of Public Speaking at the University of Michigan has been renamed the Department of Speech and under the chairmanship of my long-time colleague and predecessor at the University of Wisconsin, is now offering graduate work leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Speech. This means that there are now four large graduate schools in which students may become candidates for the doctorate in Speech. When this Association was founded thirteen

years ago, I doubt whether there were four similar institutions in which a student could secure a Bachelor's degree in Speech.

A brighter day has dawned for our profession. In 1915, Professor Winans said, "We are not yet able to take ourselves for granted. We shall feel better and do better when we can." As a profession we can now take ourselves for granted. We no longer need to apologize to anybody for the work which we are doing; it has achieved an assured place in school and college curricula. Standing firmly on a past of solid achievement, we look forward with confidence to an ever-widening future of educational service now opening before us.

EDITOR'S REPORT—1927

The real report of the editor is constituted by the JOURNALS he has edited; but beyond this, custom and courtesy allow him an annual opportunity to call attention to the merits of his publication or to apologize for its deficiencies and offer promises of improvement. I desire to do both. Much excellent writing has been offered the editor this year; I am very grateful to the contributors. I wish also to thank the entire editorial staff for its coöperation. I think I ought to mention especially the work of Professors Baird and Hudson, and that of the Associate Editors, Professor Simon and Miss Rousseau. In preparing this report I reread the reports of former editors and received much guidance from their statements. I also asked staff members and others for suggestions concerning editorial policy, and have received, together with many expressions of approval of the articles published, the following suggestions and criticisms:

1. No results of research have been published which are comparable in extent and detail with the studies in the research number for November 1926.

2. Very few articles have appeared which offered practical pedagogical help to teachers in the secondary schools.

3. Various special interests have asked to see more articles representing their particular fields.

4. The JOURNAL should be published more frequently.

5. The cover of the JOURNAL is dull and the type is hard to read.

6. The published reports of research in progress contain too

many items which seem to register largely an intention to do some work.

7. The title of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION is unsatisfactory.

I shall attempt a brief statement concerning each of these items.

1. The responsibility for the publication of more extended and specialized research is now in the hands of the research committee.

2. It is quite easy, as well as true, to say that more articles dealing directly with the teaching process in secondary schools have not been published because the editor has not received them. But the problem ought not to be dismissed too lightly. The editor of the *English Journal* has circulated a statement explaining his action in issuing two editions of his periodical, one for high schools and one for college. The enormous growth in high schools, and especially junior high schools, has been attended by a corresponding increase in good pedagogical writing; two editions are absolutely necessary to do justice to the material received. The good pedagogical writing on secondary school problems offered our JOURNAL has approached the vanishing point. Of course, the work in speech in secondary schools is largely in departments of English, and much of the writing goes to the *English Journal*. The fact that our JOURNAL is largely devoted to college and university interests probably does not encourage writers to send us material on high-school pedagogy. That so great a field should be represented by so little publication is unfortunate for our ASSOCIATION, but it does not follow that the editor of this JOURNAL should feel the chief responsibility for the problem. He can and does welcome well-written articles in the field, but to treat the subject with anything like the adequacy proposed by the *English Journal* would occupy a very considerable portion of our space, and an even greater portion of the limited editorial energy in getting the articles. It cannot now be said that we are publishing too much of our scholarship and research. The two editions of the *English Journal* have back of them the scholarly publications of the Modern Language Association. The work represented by such published research offers adequate training for those who write the pedagogical articles, and

keeps up the prestige of the more elementary work by demonstrating the possibilities of the subject for sound intellectual discipline. Until we have some such body of published scholarship, we should not do good pedagogical writing even if we attempted it. To recognize this is not to neglect the high-school work as much as it might seem. The assumption that a high-school teacher is interested only in practical matters of routine teaching is about like the assumption that women will find all their reading in the *Ladies Home Journal* or the woman's page of the newspapers. The nature of our subject is such that a well-written article is likely to be of importance and interest to teachers in that field on all the levels of our academic hierarchy.

3. Those who desire more articles in their special fields are quite likely to get them. The JOURNAL has recently been printing thirty or forty pages more than formerly. It seems possible to increase it still further. This should make it quite possible to publish the best that is written in all branches of our work.

4. Those who desire to see the JOURNAL appear more frequently will probably not be satisfied with the reply that the editor and business manager are now working beyond their capacity. If more frequent publication is really needed, some way ought to be found to secure it. I do not believe, however, that it is advisable, even if possible. The growth of specialization has greatly increased our need for unifying influences. If we published more frequently, each issue would have to be smaller and less representative of our field. Too many numbers would contain nothing at all of interest to our specialists. A quarterly publication can be more carefully edited, it can represent a much larger portion of our field in each number, and it can be a more adequate representative among other academic publications. It is sometimes difficult to see at a glance the organic unity underlying such articles as "The Artist as Propagandist," "A Stroboscopic Disc for the Study of Vocal Pitch," and "Goethe's Rules for Actors." But our need for unity is so great that we cannot afford to neglect even such a factor as constantly repeated juxtaposition.

5. The cover of the JOURNAL, it must be admitted, is dull; the type is hard to read. There has always been, of course, a certain connection between dullness and eminent respectability;

whether it is a causal relationship or not, I cannot say. I felt inclined to attempt a change, however, and did some little research in the matter. Each person consulted favored a different color. I also found that a stock lighter in color would need to be of a considerably more expensive grade to look well. The question is still open, and I shall welcome suggestions.

6. The report of the resarch committee is a matter for which that committee is responsible. In its earlier days it was necessary to include work in embryonic stages in order to discover anything that looked like research. That is no longer necessary. Members of the committee have suggested that one or two page abstracts of Masters' theses be printed. This would facilitate an exchange of theses between interested parties. I should be very glad to receive such abstracts, and I hope university departments will coöperate with the committee in furnishing them.

7. The question of the title of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION is a delicate one. Any change seems to indicate a lack of stability, and it is attended with definite inconveniences. I do not believe any change should be made unless it can command a two-thirds vote in the business meeting. I wish to announce now that I expect, during the business session, to move a change to the title of JOURNAL OF SPEECH. This will allow considerable discussion of the proposal before that time.

If anyone were to see the title Journal of Historical Education, or Journal of Musical Education (which would be better usage than our title exemplifies) I believe he would assume that the emphasis was meant to be upon pedagogy, and that it was only more elementary phases of music or history that were concerned. The implication of "education" in the title is clearly, it seems to me, that the real subject matter is methodology, that practice is the process, and skill the aim. This conception has a large place in our field, but it is not the whole field. We recognize this when we name our departments, departments of speech. I do not believe there is a department of speech education in the country. The progress away from the purely pedagogical conception of our field is strikingly shown in the type of article appearing in our JOURNAL. In the first three years of its existence there appeared nearly five times as many articles on pedagogy as upon what may be termed scholarship and research. During the next six

years the proportion remained fairly constant at about twice as much pedagogy as scholarship and research. In the next three years, only three-fifths of the articles were directly pedagogical, and in the last year the articles in scholarship outnumbered the pedagogical articles two to one. This is not an attack upon pedagogy, but it is a statement of belief that as our field develops we shall give less space to pedagogy, even though its importance remains as great as ever. That has been the history of many publications in other fields. I believe we have now reached a point where a title with such definite pedagogical implications no longer adequately represents our JOURNAL.

In considering these criticisms of the JOURNAL as a whole, it is evident that no editorial policy is likely to satisfy them all, and it would be a very negative policy which merely attempted to avoid objections. So far as there can be any policy beyond the opportunistic one of doing the best possible under the circumstances, I should say that the function of our JOURNAL in the field of speech is somewhat analogous to that of the college in our educational system. As the college attempts to be a place of scholarship, but must leave technical research largely to the universities, so we shall probably have to leave detailed and extensive research studies to the committee for separate publication. Although the college admits pedagogy and other professional subjects into the curriculum, it remains chiefly liberal. We can welcome a certain amount of pedagogy in our pages, but we should not become too narrowly technical, even if a large number of potential subscribers need practical instruction. Books can provide that much more thoroughly and systematically. And we may well remember that the increase in well-written texts considerably changes the obligations of the JOURNAL to the field. Theses and research articles, however, are often written with the chief purpose of proving to some professors that the writer is a learned person; no obligation to be interesting is admitted. Writers in the JOURNAL should make a conscious effort to be interesting to readers who are not specialists in the same portion of our field. To do this is not to write down to an audience; in general it will require more, and not less, scholarship to do it successfully. American academic publication is more weighted down with the impedimenta of scholarship than the English, but it is not for that

reason more scholarly. Our JOURNAL has published articles that are learned without being dull; we hope their number will increase. Such contributions, by the sheer pleasure they give their readers, reconcile competing interests and give unity to our field.

EVERETT HUNT, *Editor*

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BUSINESS MANAGER OF THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL AND TREASURER OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Tradition has long decreed that at each annual meeting, the keeper of the books should deliver himself of a quantity of statistics, technical and often tiresome, purporting to set forth the financial condition of the association. In conformance with this hallowed custom, I present herewith for your intelligent consideration this my third annual report.

Our present financial status is the best in the history of the Association. No longer is it necessary for the faithful few to contribute to make up the amount of the annual deficit. For the second consecutive year it was possible to weather the lean summer months without borrowing at the bank. There is a fair balance in the treasury with all bills paid or provided for.

Thanks for this are due to almost all of you:

(1) to the founders and early officers of the association who stayed by the association when the outlook was discouraging;

(2) to the present officers who have coöperated in keeping down expenses;

(3) to a number of departments who have sent in large numbers of subscriptions gathered from graduates and summer students;

(4) to the Michigan High School Debating League, the South Dakota Debating League and the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association for distributing our literature to all of their members;

(5) to the ever-increasing number of our members who in addition to sending in their own subscriptions regularly, secure occasional subscribers from among their friends who are still in darkness and need the light.

Perhaps we may now make a transition to the body of our report which will deal with matters of barter and trade.

At the beginning of the year there was a balance in the checking-account of $1040.01. This was largely a false balance as bills for the research number had not come from the printer. These cut the real balance to about $400.

Receipts from subscriptions this year amount to $2946.82. This is $200 more than receipts from this source last year, and $850 more than five years ago.

We have received $415.99 from advertising as compared with $459.84 last year. There are, however, outstanding accounts of about $100 from advertisers in the November issue that will more than make up for the apparent decrease.

The sale of old copies amounts to $202.61, an increase of about $30 over last year. The income from this source has been increasing slowly but steadily for the last four years, and should continue to do so. Let me digress here a moment to suggest that members wishing to secure copies of the early issues should act at once. Volume one is completely exhausted and only two or three sets of volume two remain.

Last year for the first time we financed the president's office and the convention largely from the convention fees. From this source last year we received $303. (This amount this year will be reported near the close of the convention.) In my estimation the convention fee is in large part responsible for the improved condition of the treasury.

Total receipts for the year including the bank balance mentioned above, the convention fees collected last year, and a few sundry items amount to $4989.77.

Expenditures. In our simple scheme of bookkeeping expenditures are listed under four columns: Printing, Office, Secretarial, and Miscellaneous.

Printing includes only the amounts paid to Flanigan-Pearson for printing and mailing the Journal and the directory. *Office* includes the editor's expenses, stationery for the various officers, as well as the cost of materials for the business manager's office. *Secretarial* includes only sums paid for stenographic help in the business office. *Miscellaneous* includes convention expenses, expenses of special committees, refunds, and small sundry items.

We have paid Flanigan-Pearson for printing $2261.40. This amount is much larger than in any preceding year because it really includes four and a half issues of the Journal. Last year the November issue was only about half paid for; while this year the total cost of the November number has been paid.

Office expenses for the year amount to $680.28. This also is an increase over last year, partially due to the fact that bills totalling $129.15 for preliminary convention expenses have already been paid, and partially due to larger expenditures for circularizing prospective members.

We have paid $260.05 for stenographic help in the business manager's office. This is $30 more than last year, but considerably less than was spent in the three preceding years.

Miscellaneous expenditures total $546.62. Of this amount $338.24 was in payment of last year's convention expenses. Other items were for the attempted directory, refunds, and sundry small unclassified items.

The total expenses amount to $4148.35. This leaves a balance in the checking account of $841.42.

Suggestions for Increasing the Usefulness of the Association

Three years in the business manager's office tend to make one materialistic and perhaps a trifle conservative. The business manager finally pays the bills and finds ways to make up deficits. So I wish to add this word of caution. The Association is now getting along nicely but there is not a wide margin over bare operating expenses, with the editor, business manager and other officers donating a great many hours of their more or less valuable time. Our plans for expansion must still include a careful consideration of costs. It would be easy to bring back the annual deficit.

But expansion there must be. President Weaver has set forth the advisability of promoting regional organizations and affiliating those already in existence. This would add to our contacts and consequently to our revenue from subscriptions as well as to our possibilities for usefulness.

Our chief increases in revenue will come from new subscriptions. These subscriptions will come largely as a result of your recommendations to your friends and professional associates. With that idea in mind I have prepared a nomination blank on which

you may set down the names of people whom you feel need membership in our association.

We must in some way make larger contacts with the high school field. Two of the state high school debating leagues are already coöperating by enclosing our advertising matter in their mailings. More can doubtless be done along this line. It seems to me also that a special high school number devoted to the problems of debating, declamation, and oratory might be planned for next November. I believe that the state extension divisions would buy numbers of this issue.

There are some states in which we have only one or two subscribers. There the difficulty is especially great in that we have so few contacts with which to begin our work. If any member is present from such a state I would like to go over with him the possibility of conducting a special campaign for membership.

With our present volunteer staff it seems to me impossible at present to increase the number of issues of the Journal. I do believe, however, that we can add to the size of each number whenever valuable material is at hand for publication.

The Journal has never been and is not now a commercial proposition. It is edited and managed by a volunteer staff. Its future depends on a continuation of your support and coöperation. Without it the Journal can not go forward; with it the goal of 10,000 members, suggested by President Weaver, can be made a reality.

H. L. EWBANK, *Business Manager*

SYLLABUS OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TERMINOLOGY

J. P. RYAN, Grinnell College, *Chairman*

Notes on The Problem of Terminology

1. *The teaching of speaking in college today is important, shown by*
   1. the large enrollment, allotment of time, number of courses, number of sections of some courses, interest in research, results.
   2. the increasing body of evidence from faculties and student committees confirming the importance of speaking as a tool for success in other subjects; as well as the

recognition of speaking as a subject of great integrating potency.

3. the demand from faculties, presidents, laymen for more instruction and great improvement in the use of the mother tongue in private rather than public speech situations.
4. the recognition that speech is connected with the forming and expressing of personality, as well as a means of social adjustment.

II. *The work in teaching is going forward with great success.*

1. the reports, enthusiasm of teachers, wealth of teaching devices.
2. the status, salary, and tenure of the teacher is improving.
3. often the best teaching in the institution is done in this department.
4. already there is a substantial showing and growing interest in research.

III. *Yet the work is handicapped, and progress is hindered by many difficulties.*

IV. *So the questions arises:* Why should a subject so important, in such demand, so ably taught, and so progressive, be regarded so lightly in some colleges, so differently in all?

V. *The answer is found in the causes which produced the problem.*

a. Fact Causes: the large enrollment, the faculty requirements, the presence of the first course, the pressure for more instruction, the demand for standardization of majors and minors, and in the exchange of credits, a greater confusion of terms and labels than in any other department.

b. Theoretical Causes: 1. In the present discussion of higher education many theories of curriculum reorganization have come out. 2. the five theories accounting for the presence of speech work on the campus: method or pedagogical process, institutional necessity, personal expression, socializing agency, field of knowledge. 3. the theory there is a field of knowledge. 4. the conflict

between the theories of the literary and scientific approach.

VI. *The problem arising from these causes may be stated from three points of view.*

1. In the minds of the members of our own ranks there is a problem as to just what fellow teachers in other colleges are doing.
2. In the minds of the students there is a problem as to what constitutes the field of speech, its opportunities, and requirements.
3. In the mind of the administrator and faculty there is a problem of comparative educational values of our work.
4. In (1) it is a question of finding the facts, (2) is largely a question of definition and content (3) of education values and objectives; the common factor of all is terminology.

VII. *The core of the problem seems to be one of terminology.*

VIII. *This chart is offered as a start in solving the problem of terminology in the subdivisions of the department.*

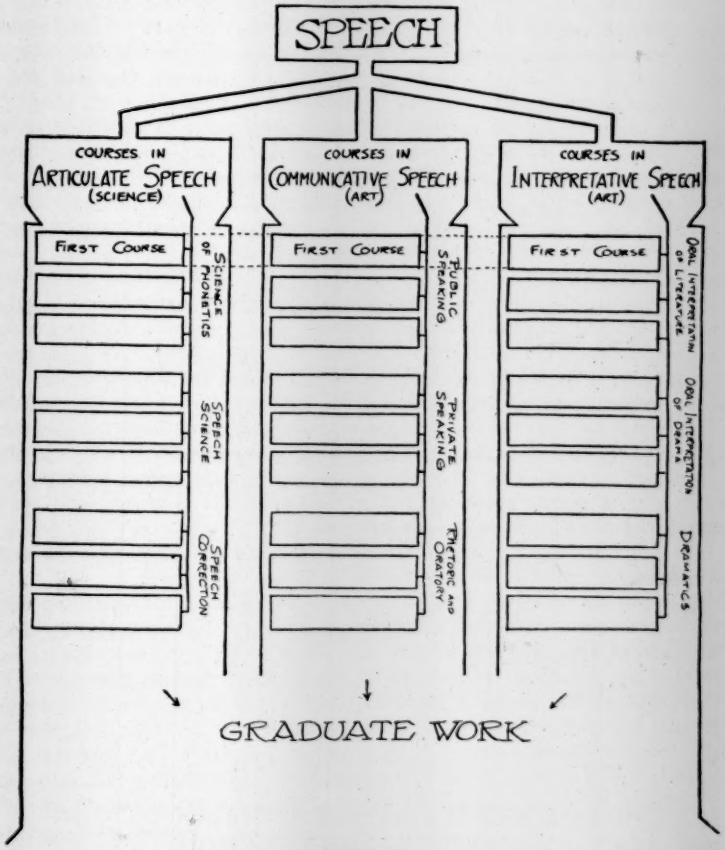
IX. *The adoption of the terminology here proposed would help:*

1. clear the atmosphere.
2. advance the interests of the subject.
3. aid standardization.
4. indicate the scientific basis of the art work
5. help curriculum committee in organizing courses
6. stimulate and direct our own thinking (but more important by far)
7. the thinking of others on the problems of speech.

This chart is broad enough for all, yet sharp enough to mark our boundaries and suggest standards.

X. *The emphasis in our work has for long quite naturally centered upon the contribution to the individual student.* That is right. It must never be lessened. But along with this there goes the contribution to the subject. Let us, then, not forget the debt we owe to the advancement of our subject; nor the debt we owe to other subjects in the curriculum, as well as the debt to the general purpose of the institution in which we find ourselves.

A CHART OF A DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH



NOTES

The problem of terminology is to mark boundaries, not to make converts.

Speech—the study of the spoken word.

The place of speech in any scheme of education is due to the relationship between speech and personality. Speech is connected with the formation and expression of one's personality; as well as being the common means of social adjustment and control.

***Articulate speech*, science, deals with the expression of thought and feeling by articulate sounds. Cognate with the sciences of physiology, psychology; it covers the form, production, and use of speech sounds.**

Furnishes basis for future work in pronunciation, language study, personality, reading, acting, and all public and private speaking.

Communicative speech, art, deals with the oral expression of *one's own* thought and feeling in private conversation or public gathering. Under communicative speech one studies the art of the beautiful and effective use of one's mother tongue in public or private speech situations.

Interpretative speech, art, deals with the oral epression of *another's* thought and feeling. Hence interpretative speech may deal with any art that uses speech as an art medium. But interpretative speech in literature and in drama has been and will continue to be a rich field for cultural studies.

This chart may give the wrong impression about relationships and boundaries. The three divisions: articulate, communicative, and interpretative speech are not correlative; rather the two divisions of art rest upon the first of science. A horizontal base line with two upright parallel lines would more accurately represent the idea of communicative and interpretative speech resting upon the base, articulate speech.

The three divisions are not separate, watertight compartments, but each division gradually shades into the other. There is an overlapping but always the line of demarcation is the mental attitude or purpose. And the first course is not equally divided into three parts. It is rather a general, fundamental, or introductory course in which the amount of science or of public speaking is determined by the exigencies of the occasion and the beliefs of the teacher.

As in the academic world today in the field of metals the one word *metallurgy* is used to represent what is known to science, as well as the chief practices therein; and as in the field of silicate the single word *ceramics* is used to cover the science and the art of clay industry, so in the field of speech activities our knowledge, and our practices are best covered by the single word *speech*. And in the field of speech, all the work, and all the workers may be gathered into three groups: articulate speech, communicative speech, interpretative speech. The last two are art; the first the science.

LIST OF MEMBERS IN ATTENDANCE AT THE CINCINNATI CONVENTION

Aldrich, Laura E., Cincinnati, Ohio.
Aikin, E. Dorothy, Cecil Twp. High School, McDonald, Ohio.
Appley, Lawrence A., Hamilton, New York.
Averette, L. M., Tennessee State College.
Barnes, Harry G., University of Iowa.
Bozell, Ruth B., Iowa State College.
Bryngelson, Bryng, University of Minnesota.
Baker, Goldie B., Bloomington, Illinois.
Berry, Mildred Freburg, Rockford College.
Brees, Paul R., Springfield, Ohio.

Brigance, W. N., Wabash College.
Brown, D. E. Marcus, College of Pacific.
Borchers, Gladys, University of Wisconsin.
Baker, Nina J., Ohio Wesleyan.
Bradley, H. A., Dartmouth College.
Babcock, Maud May, University of Utah.
Baird, A. Craig, Iowa State University.
Buist, Ida Robbins, G. W. C. Greenville, S. C.
Barrows, Sarah T., Iowa University.
O'Connell, W. V., State Teachers College, Oklahoma.
O'Neill, J. M., University of Michigan.
Opp, Paul F., Fairmont, W. V.
Owen, David, Northwestern University.
Ashley, Winston H., Crawfordsville, Indiana.
Caplan, Harry, Cornell University.
Cline, Marguerite Pearl, American University, Washington, D. C.
Cochran, I. M., Carleton College.
Connell, Leon H., California, Pa.
Corley, Mary E., Asbury College.
Cortright, Rupert L., Petoskey, Michigan.
Crocker, Lionel, University of Michigan.
Cotrel, Edna, San Francisco, California.
Cryan, Mary, Detroit, Michigan.
Cunningham, Cornelius C., N. C. State College.
Clark, Hugh L., Marshall College.
Chapman, C. E., Frankfort, Indiana.
Crawford, Mrs. L. C., Cincinnati, Ohio.
Duffey, William R., Marquette University.
Damon, Ruth A., Wellesley College.
Dix, Pearl, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Dolman, John Jr., University of Pennsylvania.
Drummond, A. M., Cornell University.
Diem, W. Roy, Ohio Wesleyan University.
Densmore, G. E., University of Michigan.
Edwards, H. E., Washington C. H., Ohio.
Edwards, Mrs. Maud, Washington C. H., Ohio.
Ewbank, H. L., University of Wisconsin.
Eich, Louis M., University of Michigan.
Eibling, Elbert F., Monongahela, Pennsylvania.
Edwards, Davis, University of Chicago.
Ehresmann, Margaret, Louisville, Kentucky.
Fife, Mrs. Eugene, Butler University.
Fleishman, Earl E., University of Michigan.
Fritz, Charles A., New York University.
Gray, J. Stanley, Ohio State University.
Given, K. W., Berea, Kentucky.
Gleissner, Lillian, Charleston, W. Va.

Gough, H. B., Greencastle, Indiana.
Green, Ruth E.
Grubbs, Verna, I. S. N. U., Normal, Ill.
Gates, A. L., Oxford, Ohio, Miami University.
Gilman, Wilbur E., University of Missouri.
Gilson, F. L., Ypsilanti, Michigan.
Gooch, Frances K., Agnes Scott College.
Gould, Ellen H., State College, Montevallo, Ala.
Griffith, B. I., Delaware, Ohio.
Griscom, Ellwood Jr., University of Texas.
Hill, Howard T., Manhattan, Kansas
Holmes, Mrs. Josephine E., Mt. Holyoke College.
Hoard, Jean, University High School, Madison, Wisconsin.
Holmes, F. Lincoln, University of Wisconsin.
Hopkins, H. D., Heidelberg College.
Hudson, Hoyt H., Princeton University.
Hultzen, Lee S., Dartmouth College.
Hunt, E. L., Swarthmore College.
Hudson, Lyman, Vermillion, S. D.
Harned, Esther Appleby, Wyoming, Ohio.
Hobgood, Olivia, Simmons University.
Herendeen, Harriet, Columbus, Ohio.
Hannah, Robert, University of Michigan.
Hardy, C. D., Northwestern University.
Harlan, R. J., University of Michigan.
Harrison, Lilian M., St. Louis, Missouri.
Harshbarger, H. C., Ithaca, New York.
Haworth, Donald, Wisconsin University.
Heffner, H. C., Chapel Hill, N. C.
Higgins, H. H., Miami University.
Illingworth, Robert S., Lafayette College.
Jones, Marguerite E., Hunter College.
Johnson, Gertrude E., University of Wisconsin.
Kennedy, Belle, Haven School, Evanston, Ill.
Kuhns, Mrs. M. S., American Speech Com.
Kelly, J. P., Miami University.
Keppel, Vera J., Stephens College.
Kenyon, Elmer L., Chicago, Illinois.
Kingsley, Mrs. Perle Shale, University of Denver.
Laras, Ralph E. K., Colgate University.
Klipple, May A., Indiana State Normal School.
Kline, Alfred S., Culver.
Karlkumber, W., Otterbein College.
Keifer, L. Katherine, Teachers College, Indianapolis.
Lieberman, Max, Thomas Jefferson H. S., Brooklyn, New York.
Le Compte, Pearle, Evansville College.
Lardner, James L., Evanston, Ill.

Lloyd, M. Pearl, Ohio Wesleyan University.
Langdon, Anny Y., Seattle, Washington.
Schmace, Lucie J., Cincinnati, Ohio.
Lichtenfels, Paul J., Washington C. H., Ohio.
Lockwood, Olive E., Mount Clemens, Michigan.
Lowry, Corienne, St. Mary's College.
Lyon, Clarence E., University of South Dakota.
Lull, P. Emerson, Purdue University.
Luther, Martin, Boston, Massachusetts.
Lotze, Frieda A., Walnut Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Lean, Delbert G., Wooster, Ohio.
Lynch, Evangeline, Chicago, Ill.
Lacy, Mrs. Mabel V., Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
Lane, Mrs. Etta, Plain City, Ohio.
McGee, J. A., Purdue University.
McKinney, Marjorie S., Cincinnati, Ohio.
McCarty, Leon, University of Cincinnati.
McGurk, Anne, Highland Park, Michigan.
McKay, F. B., Michigan State Normal College.
McNobb, L. C., Ohio Wesleyan University.
Marshman, John T., Delaware, Ohio.
Mattis, Norman W., Oberlin College.
Miller, Orville Crowder, University of Michigan.
Monroe, Alan H., Purdue University.
Morgan, Howard C., Central High School, Kansas City, Kansas.
Murphy, Richard, University of Pittsburgh.
Murray, Elwood, Purdue University.
Marino, Teresina, Smith, W. Va.
Menser, C. L., Knox College.
Miller, M. Oclo, Mount Holyoke College.
Mabie, E. C., University of Iowa.
Menchhofer, Jos. D., East Lansing, Michigan.
Miller, Miss Marvel, Illinois Wesleyan University.
Mote, Olema, Evansville, Indiana.
May, Anna Loy, Dayton, Ohio.
Mosher, Joseph A., College of the City of N. Y.
Niles, R. D., University of Colorado.
Nykerk, J. B., Hope College.
O'Brien, Angela Mae, Dayton, Ohio.
Pelsma, J. R., Pittsburg, Kansas.
Perry, Edith M., Waukesha, Wisconsin.
Paget, Edwin H., Purdue University.
Pflaum, Geo. R. R., Emporia, Kansas.
Parrish, W. M., University of Pittsburgh.
Phillips, Erna, Dayton, Ohio.
Phelps, J. Manley, Northwestern University.
Prentiss, Henrietta, Hunter College.

Read, Lillian F., Minneapolis, Minnesota.
Roberts, Forest A., Graceland College.
Robbins, Samuel D., Boston, Massachusetts.
Rahskopf, Horace, Wesleyan University.
Raines, Lester, Ohio State University.
Ray, H. M., N. C. State College.
Rose, Forrest H., Park College.
Ross, Herald T., DePauw University.
Rowell, Virginia, Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles, California.
Ryan, J. P., Grinnell College.
Shaw, Warren C., Knox College.
Stoddard, Clara B., Detroit, Michigan.
Simon, Clarence T., Northwestern University.
Stump, E. T., Marshall College.
Sands, Mary K., Dillon, Montana.
Spadino, Egbert J., Berea College.
Sorrenson, Fred S., Normal, Illinois.
Smith, John F., Westerville, Ohio.
Stinchfield, Sara M., Mt. Holyoke College.
Simpson, N. Overton, Huntington, W. Va.
Sifritt, Claude, Buhler College.
Shaver, John, Kirksville, Missouri.
Shepherd, A. W., Southern College.
Scanlan, Ross, Washington University.
Scott, Preston H., College of City of Detroit.
Saunders, Mary Evans, Union University.
Smith, Earl H., Lincoln Memorial University.
Smith, Marjorie G., Detroit, Michigan.
Secrest, R. T., Senecaville, Ohio.
Savich, Ramon, Little Theatre Guild, Nashville, Tenn.
Swisher, Florence, Albion, Michigan.
Tallcott, Rollo A., Ithaca Conservatory
Templer, Chas. S., Hamline University
Trueblood, E. P., Earlham College.
Trumbauer, W. H., Montevallo, Alabama.
Teal, Lois, Emerson College.
Thomas, C. K., Cornell University.
Tilroe, H. M., Syracuse University.
Thompson, Florence L., University of Iowa.
Utterback, Wm. E., Oberlin, Ohio.
Van Wye, B. C., University of Cincinnati.
West, Madge, Battle Creek College.
Wright, Bess Sanders, George Washington H. C., Indianapolis, Indiana.
Woehl, Arthur L, Cornell University.
Miller, Emerson W., Wooster College.
Wood, Harry Thomas, Michigan St. Normal College.
Wilner, Geo. S., Wichita, Kansas.

Weaver, A. T., University of Wisconsin.
Williams, Robert E., De Pauw University.
Weiss, N. J., Albion College.
Weldon, C. W. T., Thomas Jefferson High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Weller, Herbert C., University of Illinois.
West, Robert, Madison, Wisconsin.
Williamson, A. B., New York University.
Wiley, Earl W., Ohio State University.
Wilke, Walter H.
Willsea, Mary A., Denver, Colorado.
Winans, J. A., Hanover, N. H.
Woodward, Howard S., Western Reserve University.
Woolbert, C. H., University of Iowa.
Work, James A., Brown University.
Wright, Julia M., Denver, Colorado.

NEW BOOKS

[New books are sent to staff reviewers, but voluntary contributions are gladly considered. Manuscripts should be sent to Hoyt H. Hudson, Review Editor, Princeton University.]

Speech: Its Function and Development. By Grace Andrus de Laguna. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1927. Pp. xii, 363. $5.

Speech, as it has appeared in the light of traditional psychology, Mrs. de Laguna believes, is an inexplicable mystery. Even those writers who have largely adopted more recent psychological theories have failed to free themselves from the traditional conception of language as a means of expressing or communicating ideas. What is needed for a successful study of the psychology of speech is an abandonment of the metaphysical dualism which can conceive speech only as an external physical manifestation of inner psychical processes, and the adoption of a fresh conception of speech as an essential activity of human life. The causes and the course of development of speech must be sought in a study of the function of speech in the economy of life. Such a study, Mrs. de Laguna holds, not only throws light on the nature and evolution of speech, it gives a deeper insight into the nature and place of conceptual thought by showing its relation to speech.

Mrs. de Laguna makes a behavioristic approach to her problem, but her behaviorism differs in essential respects from that of the Watson school; it is more closely allied to the position formulated by Edgar Arthur Singer in his *Mind As Behavior.* She recognizes, however, that her behaviorism is so far from being generally accepted, or even understood, that it would be unsafe for her to assume it in her book without explicit formulation. Part two of the volume is devoted to this task; under the general title of "Aspects of Mental Evolution" she discusses behaviorism and the problem of cognition, some features of animal behavior, the learning process, the objectification of the environment, the social factor,

and the use of tools. Part one discusses the rôle of speech in society. This, Mrs. de Laguna believes, inevitably comes first, for speech is essentially a social phenomenon. The habit of regarding speech as a phenomenon of individual life, to be treated from the standpoint of individual psychology, is one of the chief reasons for the futility of much of the study of speech. It is, to be sure, the individual who speaks; but it is the individual who observes a custom, yet we have no hesitancy in saying that custom is a social phenomenon. Part three, which analyses speech as a form of individual behavior, is based upon the earlier treatment of speech as a social function, and upon the evoluntionary account of the development of mind generally. Mrs. de Laguna finds that as far as the higher mental faculties—conception and purpose, memory and imagination, belief and thought—are distinctly human, they are closely dependent upon speech. They have developed from conversation, which has the primitive function of preparing for concerted group action, and which has a characteristic structure that makes possible the organized activity of thought.

Although a similar point of view has been adopted by Pierre Janet in *Les medications psychologiques*, by Malinowski in the supplementary essay appended to Ogden and Richard's *Meaning of Meaning*, and by John Dewey in *Experience and Nature*, Mrs. de Laguna believes her book to be the first persistent and systematic attempt to apply the conception of speech as a mode of action, and not merely of expression, to the problems presented by the evolution of language structure, on the one hand, and of human intelligence, on the other. As such an attempt, the book is too important to be neglected: the destructive analysis of previous theories of language, the constructive theory of the evolution of speech through differentiation and specialization from the simple cry, the behavioristic statement of the learning proces together with its comparison and contrast with *Gestalttheorie*, the speculations upon the relationship of speech to the use of tools, the development of the significance of conversation for thought, the dependence of the higher mental processes upon speech—all these are significant contributions to thought upon highly debatable topics. Future discussions of these problems will have to take account of Mrs. de Laguna's theories, whether her views gain general acceptance or not.

As a professor of philosophy, the author may be more interested in the metaphysical consequences of her position than in possible pedagogical applications. Her recognition of the tentative nature of her theories would probably lead her to believe that pedagogy should not follow after too closely.

> The building up of an adequate theory of the evolution of language—and of human intelligence, for the two are bound together—must be the work of many years and many workers. Nothing definitive can be accomplished at present. Yet this does not mean that no tentative theory can profitably be advanced now. It may be the part of prudence, but it is not really the part of wisdom, to wait until all the data are accumulated and the evidence all in, before we try to theorize. The only danger in speculation lies in mistaking our formulations for established facts. Nor is tentative speculation a mere harmless diversion. Satisfactory theories do not spring full-fledged from a complete mass of empirical data as from the brow of Jove, but grow by gradual modifications and corrections of less satisfactory generalizations. Moreover, and this is the essential point, the real usefulness of theory lies in the fact that it sets specific problems to research, and directs attention to aspects and details which would otherwise remain unnoticed.

This is a modest statement—tentative speculation as a guide to future research. Such a view of the present state of our knowledge of speech and its relation to thought is a stimulus to study, speculation, and research; but it would seem to suggest that we are hardly ready to offer extensive instruction in the origin, nature, and function of speech as a scientific basis for pedagogical procedure.

EVERETT HUNT, *Swarthmore College*

The Spoken Word. BY WILLIAM NORWOOD BRIGANCE. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1927. Pp. ix, 323.

We have here a text-book in speech composition that ably fills the gap between "fundamentals" courses and the more highly technical and advanced courses dealing with argumentation and debate, persuasion, or detailed study of the forms of public address.

The book contains much that student and teacher will find valuable. From the opening chapter dealing with general preparation and choosing and mastering the subject, the student is led by definite and orderly steps to a consideration of "The Speech

Purpose," "The Divisions of the Speech," "The Psychology of Gaining Acceptance," "The Style of the Spoken Word," and "The Forms of Public Address." A welcome and novel addition to the information contained in the chapters listed is the statement of "The Seven Lamps of Speech Development"; seven terse direct sentences incorporating a *system* of speech preparation. These are discussed elsewhere in the book, as the logic of the chapters demands. But their inclusion as a unit in the early pages is a device that the student will find helpful and suggestive. An index, a good bibliography, and lists of exercises at the end of each chapter round out a real contribution to the literature of Speech.

If it is true that there must be one weak spot in each book, the weakest one here is the discussion of outlining. It would seem that a text-book in speech construction should contain some material dealing with the various kinds of outlines and methods of making them. But beyond insisting on the necessity for outlining, and including one specimen outline (for a fifteen minute speech), the student is given no direction or assistance at this point. He is told to do it, but not how.

One may criticize the arrangement, or quarrel with some of the material included (and with what book can we not do this?), but it cannot be denied that this book is unusually well written. Reading it is a real pleasure. When the reviewer finished it, in the wee sma' of the morning, his first reaction was that here was a book that a teacher could recommend to a class and know that boredom was far from its covers. It is well organized; the reader is never at a loss concerning the point at issue or its bearing on the entire subject. It is rich in allusions; the author has studded his pages with interesting and varied examples. The style is fresh, vigorous, and stimulating. It is an excellent written example of the attributes it recommends for the spoken word.

In its style, organization, and material this book shows care, discrimination, and a mastery of material. In short, it is an excellent text-book, and a real contribution "for those students who want to study critically and in some detail the technicalities of speech structure."

C. T. Simon, *Northwestern University*

Richard Green Moulton, Professor of Literary Theory and Interpretation in the University of Chicago. A Memoir By His Nephew W. FIDDIAN MOULTON. London. J. Alfred Sharp. 1926. 148 pages.

Within the pages that go to make up this little volume, there is much that should be both informative and encouraging to all teachers and oral interpreters of literature. It is a *Memoir* of a man whose name is undoubtedly known to the majority of the readers of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL as one of the finest literary men this country has ever had. Although a native of England, with a reputation thoroughly well established throughout the British Isles, Dr. Moulton passed over a quarter of a century of his most productive years as Chairman and Professor in the Department of Literary Theory and Interpretation in the University of Chicago. In that time, he gave Interpretative Recitals in nearly every State of the Union, and so highly were his programmes respected that he appeared in some of the larger cities on a score of occasions.

Professor Moulton's lectures practically always took the form of recitals of literature, and it was amazing to note how he won in this way an interested and eager audience for the masterpieces of Greek tragedy and comedy, and for the books of the Bible, as well as for the more popular works of dramatic literature. There were, of course, some who were not sympathetic with his methods, and who thought that the dramatic appeal was too exclusively used. But his treatment was not superficial or flashy. By reading aloud, he carried his audience to the heart of great literature, and created within them a desire to study it for themselves. What a number of men and women there are in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, who trace a beginning of the serious study of literature to the day when they heard Moulton lecture on *Macbeth*, *Faust*, *Job*, or the *Divine Comedy!*

Fiddian Moulton's *Memoir* of his distinguished uncle comprises a group of eight essays, four of these being of a purely biographical nature, while in the others the writer discusses: University extension, the Study of Literature, the Literary Study of the Bible, and Literary Theory and Interpretation at the University of Chicago. To this last named chapter, there in an Appendix, containing the syllabus of courses offered by Professor Moulton—and this should be of distinct interest to teachers of this or

kindred subjects. As a bit of scholarly biography, this book is not noteworthy; neither is the style in which it is cast especially graceful. Since Professor Moulton himself composed with such facility, it is altogether probable that one was tempted to expect too much of the nephew. Nevertheless, considering the scope and purpose, the work is well done, and the author deserves a sincere word of appreciation—and this he will receive from Professor Moulton's countless friends and students.

Richard Green Moulton ardently believed that great literature would make human society the richer and happier, and it was always his ambition to interpret the classics of prose and poetry so that the "average man" might derive joy and help therefrom. To accomplish this end, he aimed to deliver public readings and lecture-recitals—a reading with explanatory comments. In 1874, Professor Moulton started his life's work by giving courses of University Extension lectures, under the authority of the University of Cambridge. When we go back to the early seventies of the nineteenth century, we are going back to a period when the word "University" meant for England only Oxford and Cambridge, for the University of London did not then exist as a teaching University, and the provincial universities had not as yet come into being. Connected with this University Extension Movement were such men as Professor James Stuart; the Classical scholar, Benjamin Jowett; James (later Viscount) Bryce, and Richard Green Moulton. Moulton threw himself heartily into the work, lecturing all over England. He built up enormous classes in the larger cities, groups of people meeting regularly, eager to study literature. It is conceded that this University Extension Movement contributed one of the strongest forces that led to the founding of the municipal educational institutions, such as Leeds, Manchester and Nottingham.

When William Rainey Harper became President of the University of Chicago in 1892, he was desirous of building up Extension lecturing as a part of the new institution. So impressed had he been with Professor Moulton's capacity as an interpreter of literature, that he invited him to head this department. It has always been a mystery why Moulton should have left England and embarked on the Chicago venture. Perhaps it was President Harper's personality; maybe he felt that he would have a wider

scope for the development of his own theories of literary education; at any rate, Moulton remained at Chicago until 1919, when at seventy years of age, he retired from the active duties of a teacher.

Fiddian Moulton's chapters on the Study of Literature, and the Literary Study of the Bible are his best achievements. He presents very clearly R. G. Moulton's method of interpreting the Bible as literature, and a splendid outline of the growth and development of *The Modern Reader's Bible.* And no review would be complete without a brief word regarding Professor Moulton's theory of interpretation. He aimed to take a literary work as a whole, make it absolutely his own, and then present it as a clear unity in a dramatic recital. Furthermore, he constantly avowed that, in order to understand its full meaning, literature should be interpreted orally.

During the last decades of the nineteenth century, Matthew Arnold was preaching that literature was, before all things, a criticism of life: and that idea was, consciously or unconsciously, the foundation of Professor Moulton's conception of literary study. Arnold laid down the principle that criticism signifies things as they really are, he defines literature as the "criticism of life." It appears then that general literature, besides being the natural organ for the integration of thought, has in this one case a specific function: it serves as the only possible science and practical art of life. For Moulton literary interpretation was his mission; and it was his mission because to him literature provided the outstanding interpretation of life.

In his method of approaching the masterpieces of English Literature, we find that what is pre-eminently distinctive of his treatment is that the subject matter is so exclusively viewed from the standpoint of literature rather than of language or history. No one would desire to belittle the value of the normal type of text-book on, for example, Shakespeare's *Macbeth,* in that it carefully discusses the probable historical basis of the drama, its date, its relation to other works by the same author, its vocabulary etc. All such treatment may contribute to the better understanding of the work, and Richard Green Moulton would have been willing to accord full recognition to existing text-books in respect to what they aimed to do, although he would demur to regard that type

of study as being the study of literature, in that it stopped short of the "criticism of life." Furthermore, from the first he stood out for the proposition that there is *an inductive science of criticism and interpretation.* One recalls having read, on the opening page of Moulton's first book *Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist:* "As botany deals inductively with the phenomena of vegetable life and traces the laws underlying them, as economy reviews and systematizes on inductive principles the facts of commerce, so there is a criticism, an interpretation not less inductive in character, which has for its subject-matter literature." This was the determining factor in all his work, the basic principle of his entire scheme of literary study and exposition. He often said that one reason why he favored reading aloud was the place which it held in the inductive method. It was my privilege to hear Professor Moulton's Commencement Address in June, 1919, when he bade farewell to the University of Chicago; I recall that the closing sentence of the oration was a quotation from Francis Bacon, the founder of the inductive method.

Here is a tribute from the Master of University College, Oxford, Sir Michael Sadler. Those of us who knew Professor Moulton on the platform and in the class-room can appreciate its warmth: "Moulton, without Arnold's fierce earnestness in theology and politics, had something of his power to make a new atmosphere in his pupils' minds. He was infectious, radiant, magnetic. He was part preacher, part actor, part troubadour. He glowed with love of the English Bible, of Greek tragedy, of Shakespeare, of Goethe, and we who heard him recite what he loved, warmed ourselves at his fire."

ROBERT HANNAH, *University of Michigan*

A Short History of the Drama. BY MARTHA FLETCHER BELLINGER. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1927. 371 pages with appendix.

When an author prefaces a book with an avowal of purpose the reviewer's course is conveniently charted. Mrs. Bellinger tells us that her main objects in writing were:

1. to offer an easy narrative of the history of the art, giving occasional attention to forms of production and to theories of construction, but in the main trying to tell who the chief playwrights were and what they tried to do;

2. to supply a book which could handily be used as a reference work by critics, teachers, playwrights and students generally;
3. to indicate here and there the effective results gained by criticism, by conscious efforts on the part of reformers, or the more or less organized revolt against established forms.

This statement is an indication of the merits and the defects of the book. It is a clear and interesting narrative of the growth of the drama, tracing its development from pre-dramatic origins, linking together its manifestations in many lands and noting the main forces back of its changing forms, down to the present day. It should make an excellent text for students in a survey course or for general background for period study.

As a reference book it seems less successful; partly because of the confessedly 'occasional' treatment of certain phases of the subject; partly because of the frequent incompleteness of the treatment of important playwrights and their plays. While this could hardly be expected in the body of a short text covering so large a field, it might have been supplied in the appendix listing playwrights and their plays where, for reference use, one needs both completeness and accuracy and, where possible, the dates of production. One must wonder why Jonson's *Every Man Out of His Humor*, Fielding's *Tom Thumb, the Great*, and Galsworthy's *Loyalties* and *The Skin Game*—to choose from widely separated periods—should have been omitted. For reference one must still go to the careful and authoritative studies of special periods.

As a short, readable history covering the whole field of drama it is a useful and valuable addition to the books of its field. Ten well-chosen illustrations add to the attractiveness of the volume.

PHILIP M. HICKS, *Swarthmore College*

The Fundamentals of Speech. By CHARLES HENRY WOOLBERT. New York: Harper and Brothers. Revised Edition, 1927. 536 pages.

This revised edition of the *Fundamentals* contains approximately one hundred and fifty pages more than the 1920 edition. Since the readers of the JOURNAL are familiar with the older edition as well as with the review that appeard at that time,[1] our

[1] Vol. VI, 4, Nov. 1920, pp. 83-87.

present concern is with the changes that have been made. Not all of them can be covered within the confines of one review, but their general scope and tenor can be indicated.

The revision goes farther than the mere adding of pages; the whole book has been revamped,—in the opinion of the reviewer, for the better. It is better organized, not only as a whole, but also in the inter-relationships of details. The eighteen chapters (thirteen in the 1920 edition) have been grouped under four general headings, each one a distinct step in the formation of acceptable speech habits: "Speech," "Bodily Activity in Speech," "Voice," "Speech and Thought." Three appendices, "Origin and Development of Speech Habits," "Thought and Language in Speaking and Writing," and "Selections for Practice," complete an array of material which gives the student a broad understanding of the nature and process of speech with its implications, plus a thorough understanding of "what to practice and how." The first two of these appendices contain material that will be new and certainly interesting and valuable to every teacher of Speech, whatever phase of the work may hold his major interest. The "Argument of Chapter" placed at the beginnings of the various chapters is a decided aid to orientation, and clarifies the essential step-by-step pedagogy of the book.

In the first section, dealing with Speech in its general aspects, the author has included much new material on kinds and standards of Speech, together with a really clarifying and informative discussion of "Naturalness in Speaking" and the various problems that occur with the "Speaker and His Audience." In this section the beginning student will find a great deal of material of the "eye-opening" variety which will give him a new concept of the field of study and accomplishment on which he is entering. Much of this is new with this edition; all of it is reorganized with an aim to clearness and ready applicability to student problems. After these first sixty-five pages, no student can doubt that the field of Speech is a challenge to his best powers and efforts.

The most extensive additions deal with the voice: chapters on the physiology of voice; methods of improving the voice; pronunciation and enunciation, with an adequate and usable discussion of the phonetic alphabet; and the use of the voice to convey meaning. These chapters fill a gap that existed in the previous edi-

tion of the *Fundamentals*. The discussions are clear and adequate; technical details of voice and its usage are treated with sufficient background of instructions to make the instructions authoritative, yet the primary emphasis is upon the voice as an instrument, as a means to the end of better and more effective communication.

The final section on "Speech and Thought" contains a detailed analysis of the process of speech preparation. The student is given an unique slant on his speech preparation through the author's contention that orderliness and inventiveness are essentials in preparing for effective speech. From this point of departure the section gives a full and detailed account of the steps in speech preparation.

Undoubtedly the author has succeeded in revising his text "in the interest of clearness, organization, and completeness." It would seem, however, that the inclusion of charts or diagrams in the chapters dealing with the voice would have aided the author in attaining his goal of completeness. The workings of the vocal mechanism are difficult to comprehend at best, and when the student is denied the possibility of visualizing as he reads, his burden is increased materially. Even the most rudimentary understanding of the vocal adjustments necessary for the development of effective speech habits depends upon some visualization of the structure and workings of the vocal mechanism.

In at least one instance clearness is sacrificed in detailed analysis. The material dealing with "Planning for Public Speech" is so involved that the student is liable, in a maze of detail, to lose sight of the step-by-step method of speech preparation. The discussion of outlining is beyond the needs and practices of beginning students, if not indeed beyond their powers of appreciation as beginners in the art. The author has included material here which will be of use to advanced classes; in all probability he intended to do so. And yet, beginning students need "fundamentals" of outlining just as they need the "fundamentals" of any other phase of speech accomplishment.

In this same section the author has included material on directing the interests of the audience, some of which is like high explosive, useful but dangerous unless sanely handled. Based unquestionably upon human nature, it is, nevertheless, dubious material to place in the hands of young students who have not the

background of age or experience to use it without a distortion of their own perspective.

These points of objection are raised; others perhaps might be. But the reviewer, in spite of his objections and criticisms, is in favor of this revision because of its broadened scope, its clearer analysis, and its closer organization.

This book, like the first edition, is soundly based upon psychology of a recent variety; the principles and practices are rooted in the nature of man. Yet the psychology and the physiology are not obtruded to the hopeless confusion of the beginning student. The author has kept the pragmatic view which was a feature of the earlier edition. He has fulfilled, in the main, the promise of the preface, "Where a choice arises between an elaboration of information and an understanding of what to practice and how, the book chooses to make it easy to understand how and to offer aid in new and useful practices." This is a good revision of a significant text book in "fundamentals."

C. T. S., *Northwestern University*

Plea of Clarence Darrow in Defence of Richard Loeb and Nathan Leopold Jr. Chicago: Ralph Fletcher Seymour. 1925. 121 pp.

Clarence Darrow's closing speech in the Franks murder case is much more than a plea in behalf of two young murderers; it is a plea for intelligent treatment of crime, based on a belief in behavioristic psychology, and on a fatalistic conception of life; it is opposed to the punishment of crime as the wilful act of an independent and responsible individual. As such, it will be read by many who have no interest in its characteristics as a speech. But for the student or teacher of speech, those characteristics are of great interest. The plea is an example of well-organized argument, persuasively presented. Constructive argument and refutation are skilfully blended. The main propositions are presented again and again, each time with stronger and more conclusive support, and more telling effect. Yet in spite of the careful planning, the mechanics of the brief do not mar the speech at any point. Nor are there any marks of artificiality; the whole appeal seems extemporaneous, in many places almost impromptu, and always very sincere. The argument from evidence is continually supported by subtle emotional appeal; sometimes by emotional appeal entirely

divorced from the line of reasoning. The personal pride of the judge, sympathy for youth, sympathy for the parents of the accused, distrust and indignation against the prosecution, horror of death, love for children—all these and more are brought into play to save the lives of young Loeb and Leopold. Philosophy and religion play their part in the emotional element of the speech. Verse, particularly quotations from the *Rubaiyat* of Omar Khayyam, add to the general feeling-tone of the whole. Everywhere, the speaker realizes that it is not man, the reasoning animal, to whom he must address himself; but man, who feels *and* reasons.

This speech is also available in *Famous American Jury Speeches* by Frederick C. Hicks. (West Publishing Company, Saint Paul.)

MACK EASTON, *Swarthmore College*

OLD BOOKS

[This department will discuss volumes of interest to students and collectors of old books in our field. Contributions and suggestions should be sent to Hoyt H. Hudson, Princeton University.]

Parliamentary Logick. To which are subjoined Two Speeches delivered in the House of Commons of Ireland, and other Pieces. By the Right Honorable William Gerard Hamilton. With an Appendix containing Considerations on the Corn Laws, by Samuel Johnson, LL. D., never before printed. London, 1808. pp. 253.

Parliamentary Logic. By William Gerard Hamilton. With an Introduction and Notes by Courtney S. Kenny, LL. D. Reprint Series, No. 1. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons, 1927. pp. xiv, 88.

At two o'clock in the afternoon of November 13, 1755, Mr. Hamilton arose in the House of Commons and began to speak to the question then in debate, that of the king's address. He held the floor until a quarter of five the next morning. Two days later Horace Wolpole, writing to a friend, described the speech: "There was a young Mr. Hamilton who spoke for the first time; and was at once Perfection. His speech was set, and full of antitheses; but those antitheses were full of argument. Indeed his speech was, of the whole day, the most full of argument. And he broke through the regularity of his own composition, answered other people, and fell into his own track again, with the greatest ease. His figure was advantageous, his voice strong and clear, his manner spirited; and the whole with the ease of an established speaker." After three months Walpole had occasion to write: "The young Hamilton has spoken and shone again." Later this orator, as chief minister of the crown in the Irish House of Commons (with young Edmund Burke as his secretary), spoke on at least five occasions. But although a member of the English House from 1763 until 1796, Hamilton never again addressed that body. It was his

maiden speech which was remembered and which was responsible for his nick-name, "Single-Speech" Hamilton.

Twelve years after his death in 1796, the note-book which Hamilton had carefully assembled, and which Dr. Johnson had pronounced a "curious and masterly" work, was given to the public under the editorship of Malone, the Shakespearean scholar. In 1828 this book, *Parliamentary Logick*, was translated into German and printed at Tübingen; another German version is dated 1872. In 1886 appeared a French translation prepared by M. Joseph Reinach, private secretary of Gambetta, and said by him to be of special value for equipping politicians "to unmask M. Clemenceau, by detecting his sophistries." Now, one hundred and nineteen years after the original edition, we have the first reprinting in England of Hamilton's interesting little work.

Parliamentary Logic is a collection of observations and aphorisms, 553 in number, all directed to forming the successful parliamentary debater. Some sentences, such as "Rhetoric is the power or faculty to consider in every subject what is therein contained proper to persuade," are taken *verbatim*[1] from Aristotle's *Rhetoric;* others come, either by translation or paraphrase, from Quintilian and Cicero. "The larger your anticipation, the more compendious your search," is from Bacon.[2] But a fair proportion of the material is the residue from Hamilton's own experience as a speaker, taken with his observation of English parliamentary debating in its best period.

Aphoristic writing lends itself to quotation. I shall set down these few excerpts as representative, though inadequately so:

Have a method; but conceal it.

When you cannot convince, a heap of comparisons will dazzle.

[1] Hamilton used a translation of the *Rhetoric;* namely, the anonymous one of 1686. This is proved by comparing the sentence quoted above with the definition as given in that translation: "Let Rhetoric therefore be a Power or Faculty, to consider in every Subject what is therein contain'd proper to persuade."

[2] Professor Kenny, editor of the reprint, says of this sentence, "The meaning probably is that 'Preconceptions are often allowed to take the place of Researches.'" Had he observed that the saying is Bacon's, and read it in its context, he would have seen that the meaning is rather, "The better prepared you are to ask questions, the more quickly will you find material."

Logic handles reason as it is; rhetoric as it is planted in people's opinion.

Every particular subject may afford some topic of general declamation. Consider always what this is, and use it.

Arrange in your own mind all your *ideas* from the beginning to the end, before you think of the *words*.

The taking notice of the particular stage of the debate, or of the very particular turn it has taken, makes in general a good opening.

Rhetoric would be an easy thing, if it could be contained in a rule. But *contrivance* is a main consideration in an orator; who must vary according to causes, conjunctures, occasions, and relations.

Either overrate and aggravate what is asserted against you, and then you will be able to show that it is not true; or underrate it, and then admit it in a degree and with an apology.

If your opponents have ever been in Government, consider all the measures they took, the laws they passed, the votes and the journals of their time; from these you will probably collect many arguments *ad hominem*.

You may perplex reason by subtlety, or over-rule it by imagination.

If well considered, there is no subject of debate which does not in some part or other admit of saying what is agreeable to, and what will in a degree reconcile, even those who oppose you.

We need not renew in this place the attack made by Jeremy Bentham and others upon the ethics of *Parliamentary Logic*. Special interest attaches to Hamilton because of his relation to Edmund Burke in the latter's formative years: because he was one of Dr. Johnson's favorite partners in conversation; and because he was credited with having written the "Junius" papers—his denials taking the form of indignant claims that he would not have produced anything so wretched in style. Finally, when we learn that he sometimes rehearsed before friends, as many as three times, one of his three-hour speeches, we cannot but look upon "Single-Speech" Hamilton as a remarkable man. His note-book is one of the best among our neglected treasures.

HOYT H. HUDSON, *Princeton University*

IN THE PERIODICALS

[Material for this department should be sent to A. Craig Baird, University of Iowa. Short reviews of important articles, notices of new publications of interest to our readers, lists of articles or single items will be welcomed.]

With the January issue, the *English Journal* began to appear in two editions. The regular edition will be devoted to the work of the Senior and Junior high schools, and the "college edition" to English in higher education.

The *Speech Semi-Annual,* edited by students in the department of speech in the Pontiac High School, gives an interesting picture of the activities of the department. William N. Viola has charge of the work. Thelma Meyer is editor-in-chief of the special edition.

Volume I, number 2, of the THE JOURNAL OF EXPRESSION (September 1927) is a *Speech Number,* devoted primarily to speech improvement, treatment of speech defects, and phonetics. *Influence of Speech upon the Intellect and Emotions,* by Smiley Blanton, is a note on the origin of speech defects in emotional difficulties, and their result in lowering the apparent intelligence quotient. *Reflections of a Teacher after a Conference on Phonetics,* by Henrietta Prentiss, is a general plea for open-mindedness toward the contribution of specialists in the field of speech, and an exposition of the place of phonetics and the system of the International Phonetic Association. *Phonetics as a Dispeller of Illusions,* by Sarah T. Barrows, discusses various prevalent but erroneous conceptions of speech processes and pronunciations, and the use of phonetics to correct them. "Before engaging in the correction of articulatory defects we should do well to examine in the light of phonetics our ideas concerning the use of the vocal mechanism in the production of speech sounds. Then, after having dispelled as many of our illusions as possible by the study of phonetics, we are ready to begin the constructive work of speech correction." *Stammering,* by Frederick Martin, outlines the psychological and physiological

causes and results of stammering, and the possibilities of scientific treatment. *Drafting the Sense of Touch in the Cause of Better Speech,* by Robert H. Gault, treats of the experiments of the Vibro-Tactile Research Laboratory of Smith College in making ears out of fingers for the deaf. Through the use of electrical apparatus, the sense of touch can be used in improving the speech of the deaf and in teaching deaf children.

Number 3 (December) of the same magazine is an *Ibsen Number.* Among the miscellaneous articles, *Speech Training and the School Curriculum,* by Sara M. Stinchfield, points out the harmful results in our schools of over-emphasizing silent reading and written exercises at the expense of oral expression, and the necessity of speech classes for both normal students and those with speech defects. *Modern Tendencies in Intercollegiate Debating,* by Frederick W. Anderson, is a brief survey of present tendencies as to choice of questions, types of decisions, and attendance. *Dramatics in the Modern College,* by Frances K. Gooch, discusses the value of dramatics to the students, and the possibility of raising the standards of the theatre through the influence of the college.

MANGUN, VERNON L. *The Mind-Bedevilment Caused by Debates.* Educational Review, October, 1927, pp. 155-162.

Debating: Sophism Instsitutionalized. Educational Review, November, 1927, pp. 195-201.

These two articles purport to be a criticism of debating as now organized in the high schools of the country, from the point of view of the educator and the educational-sociologist. Doctor Mangun begins his criticism with an acknowledgment of the training received in debate, and the question: "Is this very effective training the kind of thing that best fits young people for those adjustments that will make society more nearly what it should be?" Such adjustments he considers should be arrived at through the scientific method: the purpose or problem must be determined, materials related to it must be assembled and examined, the problem must be redefined and solved in the light of these materials, and the results formulated.

Debate fails entirely to meet this test, for it consists of assigning a conclusion in advance of study; such conclusion to be supported regardless of other conclusions reached after studying the

problem! In support of this accusation, the writer cites the requirement of state leagues that teams debate both sides of the question, states that emphasis is on the decision rather than the issue, and quotes articles praising teams for their ability to win either side of a debate. He charges that such methods develop the habit of rationalistic and wishful-thinking argument, rather than straight thinking. At least 3,696 high schools, in thirty-two of our states, are training their students in this dangerous irrational mode of thinking, and the number is rapidly increasing. And yet in the average text on argumentation and debating, "Argumentation is represented as built upon belief as a result of careful unbiased investigation."

The second article continues the attack. The prevalent system of judging relegates the question to a place of minor importance. The tournament system appeals primarily to the spirit of emulation. Rules against "scouts" and against new constructive material in rebuttal speeches are contrary to the aim of problem-solving. The emphasis on the decision leads to discrimination against the girls.

In order to use the scientific method of problem-solving and to have each speaker express his own belief, an interesting plan is proposed. One or two speakers from each of a half dozen schools offer what to them seems the best solution to the problem under consideration. Audience and speakers may then question each representative; speakers may indulge in informal debate on the various proposals. Then the judges render decision on the basis of who has made the best proposal. (This type of discussion is not new to many colleges, but it seems inexpedient to allow so many speakers in one contest or to try to judge so complex a discussion.)

Doctor Mangun considers that in view of present experiments in the colleges, the outlook for improvement is good; and suggests that the colleges should use their positions of leadership to hasten the work.

The present writer believes Doctor Mangun has confused the institution with the methods of operating it which he has seen. If debate squads really study the question involved; if debaters who believe in a solution other than that proposed are allowed to uphold their belief on a negative team; if it is a point of honor to use only sound arguments whether for or against one's convictions;

if the speeches are extempore products of the student's own thinking—then the more worth-while of these criticisms are met. That such debating can be done and is being done by high-school students the present writer knows from first hand observation. As for the objection against debating a pre-established proposition—that is exactly the type of debate which the citizens meets in the legislature, the town meeting, or the pre-election contest.

MACK EASTON, *Swarthmore College*

LITTELL, ROBERT. *Voices.* The New Republic, LIII, 68; December, 7, 1927.

An interesting note upon how the voices of a preacher, a vegetable-man, two teachers, and a singer sound to a non-technical but sensitive observer. The "cultivated" voice of the preacher inspires this excellent description:

> ... Years of Sunday eloquence, years of careful striving for something just a little bit higher than human speech have been rewarded by an accent which does not exist among ordinary mortals. It is a mixture of bishops he has admired and society-drama English, grafted on to now undecipherable American beginnings. It is round, and mellow, and wilfully precise; it is lubricated, clear, and miraculously obedient; it can be warmly solemn, or gravely inquiring, or eloquently casual, or piously distressed, without exagerrating any of these moods to the point where a sensitive hearer begins to feel discomfort. It is a complicated and ingenious instrument, possessing all the stops save one—vox humana.
>
> You may think that under all these cultivated notes a real man of some kind lies hidden, but you are wrong. ...

H. H. H.

CAPLAN, HARRY. *Rhetorical Invention in Some Medieval Tractates on Preaching.* Speculum, II, 3, July, 1927.

A scholarly survey of medieval tractates on preaching with special reference to the *inventio* of clasical rhetoric.

NEWS AND NOTES

[Items intended for this department—play programs, announcement of new courses, changes in positions, programs of state and sectional meetings, and personals—should be sent directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 30 Clinton St., Brooklyn, New York. Normal School items will be received by Carroll P. Lahman, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.]

Teachers of Speech will be interested in the project of the Linguistic Society of America, just announced, to establish a Linguistic Institute during the summer of 1928. This will take the form of a summer school and research institute, to continue from July 9 to August 18, at New Haven, with the coöperation of the authorities of Yale University, who have placed their facilities at the disposal of the Institute. The administration of the Institute is in the hands of a Committee of the Linguistic Society, consisting of E. H. Sturtevant of Yale, as Director; R. E. Saleski, of Bethany College, as Assistant Director; and R. G. Kent of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Linguistic Society.

To the clientèle of this journal, the most interesting of the courses will be those of a general nature and those in English. We find, in the circular which has just gone out, an Introduction to Linguistic Science, by E. Prokosch of Bryn Mawr; two courses in Phonetics, by G. O. Russell of Ohio State; Semantics, by W. Petersen of Florida; Linguistic Anthropology, by P. E. Goddard of the American Museum of Natural History in New York; Old English, and History of the English Language, by K. Malone of Johns Hopkins; American English, by Miss Louise Pound of Nebraska. There are many other courses, in Sanskrit, the classical languages, Romanics, Celtic, Germanic, Semitics, and even in Turkish, of which descriptions may be found in the circular.

New Haven is an agreeable spot for a summer stay, and excellent sea-bathing is in easy reach. Association with scholars and students of kindred interests is another attraction of the Institute. Those who plan to enroll should make a preliminary registration at

the earliest possible date, since the Institute cannot be held unless a sufficient demand is manifested early in February. Preliminary registration, which may be cancelled later, and requests for circulars and information, are to be directed to Prof. E. H. Sturtevant, Director of the Linguistic Institute, Box 1849, Yale Station, New Haven, Conn.

R. G. KENT, *University of Pennsylvania*

The Eastern Public Speaking Conference will meet with the New England Conference at Yale, April 13 and 14. The Yale School of Drama will act as hosts to the conference. Miss Elizabeth Avery, of Smith College, President of the Eastern Conference, is arranging an interesting program. Professor John Crawford, of Yale, is chairman of the dramatics section; Professor Henrietta Prentiss of Hunter College has charge of the speech section; Professor Parrish of Pittsburgh has the interpretation and Professor Wichelns of Cornell the public speaking. The general committee consists of Professor Stinchfield of Mt. Holyoke, Professor Grosvenor Robinson of Bates, Professor Busse, of New York University, the Secretary of the Conference, Mrs. Harvey, and the President, Miss Avery.

The Internatiional Conference on Speech Training was attended by delegates from about thirty organizations and representatives from all parts of the British Isles and the most important countries of Europe. The first day was devoted to the subject of a Physiological Standard, with G. Secombe Hett as chairman; the second day, to a Phonetic and Educational Standard with Sir Hugh Allen, chairman; and the third day to an Aesthetics Standard with Prebendary A. W. Gough as chairman. The moving spirit of the Conference was Miss Elsie Fogerty, who has done more than any other individual to advance the cause of Speech Training in England; she was the instigator of the movement which led to the offering of a Diploma in Dramatic Art and Speech by the University of London, and her work as founder and principal of the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art has received universal recognition. One of the most important phases of her work at the Conference was the drawing up of a test for Oral English and a resolution that such a test be recommended by the Confer-

ence to the Board of Education. The resolution was passed practically unanimously after a heated discussion. During the Conference Miss Fogerty spoke brilliantly on the subjects of Hospital Clinic Work and A Common Standard for Song, Drama, Speech and Oratory.

On the first day W. A. Aikin, the distinguished authority on Phonology, discussed this subject, stressing the point that breath, note, tone, and word are the foundations of speech, and explaining the resonator scale by which the twelve vowel sounds are formed by variations in the position of the lips and tongue. Dr. E. J. Boome, from the Stammering Clinic of the L. C. C. spoke on the subject of Modern Treatment of Stammerers, stating that practically all cases were caused by the setting up of an inferiority complex due to environment or physical defects, and explaining the methods and diagnosing and handling the cases in the clinics and classes. Dr. Th. S. Flatau of Berlin spoke on The Psycho-Physiology of Voice and Speech Coördination, and R. C. Jewesbury, Somerville Hastings, Eric Miall, H. St. John Rumsey and Herbert Tilley led the discussion of Hospital Clinic Work which followed.

On the second day the well known leaders in the speech movement and broadcasting, as well as phonetics—Walter Rippman, Miss I. C. Ward, A. Lloyd James, J. C. Stobart and Kenneth Barnes—discussed the question of phonetics and the influence of broadcasting on the formation of a national speech. They all stressed the difficulties due to the numerous dialects in common usage and the strong class feeling back of various standards of pronunciation and diction. They all agreed that enthusiasm for simple and sincere interpretation were the chief aims to be kept in mind, and they hoped that broadcasting might lead to the establishment of standards of pronunciation, a scientific basis for dramatic art, and a linguistic basis for the art of speech.

The morning of the third day was devoted to the discussion of the aims and achievements of the English Verse Speaking Association by the leaders in the movement, Mrs. Tobias Matthay and Miss Marjorie Gullan, and a number of volunteers were enlisted from all parts of the British Isles to organize groups. Mr. Clifford Turner spoke on the interpretation of poetry. The closing session dealt with the subject of a common standard for song, drama, speech and oratory, ably discussed by recognized leaders in the respective

fields—A. Acton-Bond, Madame Kirby Lunn, Mr. Aikin, Miss Fogerty and Miss A. Klemantaski.

The most brilliant event of the Conference was a masterly address delivered in exquisite French by M. Emile Draln of the Société Universelle du Theatre, Paris. It dealt with the evolution of the speech of the French Theatre and with the devotion of the French to their mother tongue and its perfect expression which is inculcated in the youth of the land and carried on to the heights of the French stage. The dramatic interpretation of a scene from Moliere was the culmination of the address.

Numerous other speakers of marked distinction, such as Sir Henry Newbold, E. C. Matthews, and Miss Richardson were on the program or spoke informally in the discussions. Teachers from various places begged that the adjudicators in competitive speech events be selected for their knowledge of the technique of speech as well as for their standing in the literary world. The place of verse and dramatic interpretation in the folk festivals was also discussed.

A letter from Mr. A. T. Weaver was read, expressing the regret that no official delegate from the American Association of Teachers of Speech could be sent at this time and stating the enthusiastic support of that organization extended to the Inernational Conference. Miss Katharine Ommanney, head of the work in Public Speaking and Dramatics at the North High School, Denver, Colorado, and Dean of the Elitch Summer School of the Theatre, spoke briefly on the similarity of interests and problems on both sides of the water and, as the only American representative of the work, expressed orally the interest of the United States in the achievements of the English Conference.

Two main interests occupied the speech conference held by the department of speech at the University of Iowa November 18 and 19: a series of papers with discussions on the beginning course, and a round table on debate problems. The conference opened with a discussion of the division of time in the beginning course by Professor Dale Welch of the University of Dubuque and Professor Lionel Crocker of the University of Michigan. Professor Welch argued for a balance among fundamental principles and practise

in speaking at a meeting. Professor Crocker outlined the beginning course as given at the University of Michigan. Professor Frank M. Rarig of the University of Minnesota spoke on minimum essentials for a beginning course. These he presented as: Understanding speech as a means of social adaptation and improved social habits, understanding the emotional habits of the individual, knowledge of the technique of bodily control, knowledge of the mechanism of thought and speech organization, understanding of speech sounds, understanding of voice and scale and its use, knowledge of an audience psychology, understanding of the various types of speech composition. Professor John P. Ryan of Grinnell College argued for the use of the laboratory method in the beginning course, employing the class hour for practise of what has been studied outside and for a class room free from text-book drill. Following these discussions an inquiry was conducted as to the year in which the beginning course is given and the number of hours per week. Reports were elicited from twenty-five colleges and showed that in most cases the course is offered in the freshman year, for sections averaging between twenty and twenty-five, for from one to five hours per week. There is a tendency to believe the sophomore year is the most favorable year.

On Saturday morning Doctor Clarence T. Simon of Northwestern University spoke on class methods in a large section and offered the following devices: 1. Read the assignment each time and furnish a specific shove-off for the next assignment. 2. Give a five-or-ten-minute written quizz each day. 3. Fix a time limit for speeches and enforce it. 5. Section the class. 6. Avoid adverse criticism from students during the first semester. 7. Let the instructor time his criticism by the stop-watch. 8. Outline criticisms. 9. Use a modification of the volunteer system. 10. Utilize the advantages of large sections.

Professor Henrietta Prentiss of Hunter College explained the work of the beginning course at Hunter, setting forth the ideals maintained there of usable and elegant pronunciation, and giving a most interesting oral demonstration of the sort of problems dealt with in the course. Professor J. M. O'Neill of the University of Michigan, under the title Knowledge and Skill as an Objective in the Beginning Course, gave his estimate of the proper balance to be maintained between these two objectives. The discussion of

the beginning course was closed by Miss Helene Blattner, of the University of Iowa, who presented some observations on teaching the one hour course required of freshmen. Miss Blattner pointed out how speech training in the freshman year helps more than any other subject to bridge the gap between high school and college by helping the student to confront other people more successfully, to make recitations more effectively in all subjects, and in a very definite way to carry on training in personality. These Miss Blattner commended as the observable results of the required freshman course in the last seven years at Iowa.

The round table on debating was led by Professor O'Neill and by Professor A. Craig Baird of the University of Iowa. The discussions centered around new modes in debating and the movement toward greater persuasiveness in debating. Both speakers confined themselves to descriptions of what they have seen taking place of late in debating practices. Wide and lively discussion on the part of the twenty-five debate coaches present ensued.

One other interesting note was struck in the conference in the talk given by Cliff Cornwell of the Kirksville Missouri State Teachers College on speech training for junior high schools. Professor Cornwell pictured it as a task of great delight, as the junior high school student is at a peculiarly fortunate age for training in speech.

VIVIAN TURNER, *University of Iowa*

The fifteenth annual convention of the Rutgers Interscholastic Debating League met at Rutgers University on December 3, with an attendance of more than 450 debaters and coaches of debate, almost entirely from high schools and preparatory schools of New Jersey. Beside a debate between students of Summit High School and Union City High School, criticized by Professor John S. Morris of New York University, the program included a talk, "How to Use the Library," by Miss Sarah Askew of the New Jersey State Library; "Is Talk Cheap?" by Professor Hoyt Hudson of Princeton; and "Public Speaking Practice" by Professor J. A. Winans of Dartmouth. Mr. Richard C. Reager of the Extension Division of Rutgers, General Secretary of the League, had charge of the convention.

The University of Wisconsin has announced plans for the 1928 Summer Session. Frank M. Rarig of the University of Minnesota will offer a course in the Psychology of Speech in the nine-weeks graduate session and a course in the Theory of Interpretation in the regular session. Mrs. Ottilie Seybolt of Grinnell College will teach courses in Dramatic Production and Story Telling in the regular session and will also be connected with the newly established School of Creative Arts, which is a sort of experimental grade school in which the children work in Applied Arts, Music, Dancing, and Dramatization. Joseph F. Smith of the University of Utah will assist Mr. Troutman in Dramatic Production and offer a course in Phonetics. N. J. Weiss of Albion College will teach Speech Correction in the six-weeks session. Miles L. Hanley will teach the same subject in the nine-weeks session. In addition to these, most of the members of the regular staff will teach during the summer.

Dean Huber, Professor of Anatomy in the Medical School and Dean of the Graduate School in the University of Michigan, will conduct a Seminary in the Department of Speech of that institution in the second semester. The course will deal with the anatomy and function of the vocal organs. Dr. John H. Muyskens will assist Dr. Huber in the Seminary.

Swarthmore College has recently received a bequest of five thousand dollars from Mrs. Jessie Bacon Potter which she willed to the College as a memorial to her husband, Judge W. P. Potter, and which will be known as the William Plumer Potter Fund for the Encouragement of Public Speaking.

J. B. Nykerk of Hope College, Michigan, has added a new course to the curriculum there, in Vocal and Literary Interpretation of the Bible. This course is intended primarily for students who expect to train for the ministry after completing their collegiate courses.

There are sixteen graduate students in Speech at the University of Wisconsin this year, including seven candidates for the Ph. D. degree in Speech. Among them are Miss Anna Carr of

the University of Iowa, Miss Abigail Casey of the Colorado State Teachers' College, Donald Haworth of Penn College, Iowa, and F. L. D. Holmes of the University of Minnesota.

Among the graduate students in Public Speaking at Cornell University this year are the following teachers: D. T. Martin of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Elizabeth Jenks from the Sausolito (California) High School, John Parlette of the Bellefontaine (Ohio) High School, Mrs. E. G. Hatch of Trivandrum, Travancore, India, Geraldine Morrow and Geraldine Quinlan of Elmira College for Women, W. S. Howell of Washington University (St. Louis), and Elizabeth Worman of Berea College, Kentucky.

An item of interest from Northwestern University is the announcement of their abolition of the two-year diploma course in Speech. This means that Northwestern now offers only the degree of B. S. in Speech for four years of college work, and the M. A. for graduate work.

The University of Arizona has introduced new courses this year in English Phonetics, Scenic Design, and Stage Lighting. Mr. Reider B. Torjussen of Leland Stanford University has been added to the instructional staff. A Speech Clinic was organized early in the year, each member of the staff conducting a definite part of the clinic work. A Speech Club has been formed on the campus, consisting of faculty, students, and townspeople, which, besides its obvious purposes, is expected to stimulate and develop in the community an enlarged conception of the importance and function of speech training.

A newcomer to the News and Notes Section in this issue is the University of Maine, where Mark Bailey is Chairman of the Department of Public Speaking. Recent dramatic activities on the campus at Orono have included productions of *Icebound*, *Candida*, *The Whole Town's Talking*, *You and I*, *Loyalties*, *Merry Wives of Windsor*, *The Importance of Being Earnest*, *Outward Bound*, *Captain Applejack*, and *Hell Bent fer Heaven*. Stage settings have

been made for every production by the members of the Maine Masquers, the student dramatic organization.

The Department has recently organized a debating league for the high schools of the state which is starting with much enthusiasm.

Wilbur Daniel Steele, short story writer and novelist, held a two weeks conference on short story writing during the summer session of the State University of Montana.

The Rutgers Interscholastic Debating League, under the management of Rutgers University, was reorganized in October, and now consists of four divisions, one for New York high schools, one for Long Island high schools, one for those of New Jersey, and the other for Pennsylvania.

Princeton University is undertaking a heavy schedule this year, including, in addition to debates with Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, Williams, Amherst, and Brown, a debate with the British Union, in which each side will be represented by two speakers from one school and one from the other. A debate with the University of Porto Rico is also under consideration.

Public Speaking 1 at Illinois has been advanced from a two-hour to a three-hour basis, effective this year. The old course two, Extempore Speaking, has been replaced by a course called Business and Professional Speaking, in which the elements of persuasion are taught, and developed in oral reports, sales talks, inspirational speeches, discussions, and conferences.

Northwestern, Illinois and Purdue have formed a girls' triangular debating league. The first annual contests were held in December.

One of the most unusual debates scheduled by the British Union in the course of their visit to this country was that with the team representing Lincoln University, an institution for negro students at Chester, Pennsylvania. The audience was composed of more than two thousand negroes, who listened with keen interest

to a debate on the proposition: *Resolved:* That the attitude of the Anglo-Saxon race toward the colored races under its control is unethical and prejudicial to progress. The English team upheld the negative of the proposition. The debate was not judged.

The debate schedule for the University of Iowa includes debates of the men's varsity team with Cambridge, Illinois, the University of Oregon, Western Reserve University, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, in addition to a series of debates in connection with the trip to Western Reserve, open forum non-decision debates before civic organizations with Nebraska, and a home contest in April with Harvard or Yale; the women will debate Knox College, Iowa State College, and probably other institutions; and the freshmen will debate with the University of Chicago and others.

DRAMATIC ACTIVITIES

The first semester program of the Cornell Dramatic Club is as ambitious as the activities of that institution usually are. In addition to sponsoring Jean Gors' Marionettes in Maeterlinck's *The Blue Bird* and Twain's *Huckleberry Finn,* and a performance of the Adolph Bolm Dance Ballet, the club presented three major productions and seven groups of one-act plays. The longer plays were: Sutton Vane's *Outward Bound,* Capek's *R. U. R.,* and *The School of Princesses* by Jacinto Benevente. Shorter plays included: *By Their Words Ye Shall Know Them,* by Sarafin and Joaquin A. Quintero; *The Daily Doesn't,* by Charles Knox; *The Wonder Hat,* by Ben Hecht and Kenneth Goodman; *Action,* by Holland Hudson; *The Quod Wrangle,* by Oliphant Down; *Evening Dress Indispensable,* by Rolland Pertwee; *Gloria Mundi,* by Patricia Brown; *The Grand Cham's Diamond,* by Allan Monkhouse; *Saved,* by J. W. Rogers, Jr.; *The Grandmother,* by Lajos Biro; *Released,* by E. H. Smith; *Two Blind Men and a Donkey,* by Mathurin Dondo; and Lady Gregory's *The Bogie Man,* Gertrude Jennings' *Between the Soup and the Savoury,* Kreymborg's *Rocking Chairs* and *Monday,* O'Neill's *In the Zone* and *Ile,* Strindberg's *Pariah,* Morley's *Rehearsal,* Dunsany's *The Lost Silk Hat,* Gerstenberg's *The Pot Boiler,* Leacock's *Q,* and Pinero's *Playgoers.*

The production staff of the theatre consists of A. M. Drummond, Director, with the assistance of Richard Dunham, Bernard

Lenrow, Judson Genung, Theodore Kuhn, Constance Brown, and Elizabeth Worman.

Dr. Marvin T. Herrick of the University of Pittsburgh and Dr. Walter H. Stainton of Dartmouth College will assist Professor Drummond in the courses in Dramatic Production in the Cornell 1928 Summer Session.

Fanchot Tone, president of the Cornell Dramatic Club last year is now appearing on Broadway. Frank Lopez, Art Director of the Club last year, is working in the studio of Norman Bel-Geddes. Elizabeth Keenan and Liza Rembov are studying at the American Laboratory Theatre.

Major productions announced for the current season at the University of Iowa include *The Poor Nut,* by J. C. and Elliott Nugent; *A Square Peg,* by Lewis Beach; *Number Seventeen,* by J. Jefferson Farjeon; Shaw's *Saint Joan; The Detour,* by Owen Davis; Barrie's *What Every Woman Knows; The Wisdom Tooth, by Marc Connelly;* and an original play to be chosen from the manuscripts submitted in the Play Production Contest. The staff of the University Theatre includes Edward C. Mabie, Director; Vance M. Morton, Associate Director; Helen Langworthy, Assistant Director; Walter Roach, Art Director; and Harry G. Barnes, Stage Manager.

Shaw's *Arms and the Man,* and *The Taming of the Shrew* (modern dress) have been recently produced at Swarthmore.

Earle Fleischman, who has been a member of the Speech faculty at the University of Michigan for the past four years, has recently been appointed director of Play Production there. Although the University is handicapped by the lack of a producing theatre, an ambitious program for the year is under way. *The Romantic Young Lady,* by G. Martinez Sierra, was the first of four public productions on the schedule. It was staged in the Mimes Theatre, and the settings were designed and constructed by the class in Stagecraft, under the direction of Richard Woellhof. In addition to the public plays, the laboratory theatre is rehearsing eight full-length plays, under the direction of advanced students in drama-

tics. Among these are *Sun-up, Hell Bent fer Heaven, The Show-off,* and *The Concert.*

Dramatic activities at Northwestern University are decidedly varied. The Town and Gown Class in playwriting is conducted by Theodore Ballou Hinckley, Editor of the Drama Magazine. Several of the plays written by members of the class have been published by Samuel French. Promising plays written here are then produced in the Playshop, each play being presented four times, and on two of these nights the entire audience discusses the play, the discussion being led by Mr. Hinckley.

The Children's Theatre, under the direction of Miss Winifred Ward, is now an established organization, presenting four plays each year, each play running for six performances.

The Bascom Theatre at the University of Wisconsin is well launched on its first season in the beautiful new theatre which was completed late last spring. *In the Next Room,* and *He Who Gets Slapped,* were the Fall productions of the University Players. In addition, the Theatre brought professional companies of *Abraham Lincoln* and *The Servant in the House,* to Madison. William Troutman directs the activities of the playhouse and E. Ray Skinner is Business Manager.

The Carolina Playmakers, the dramatic group of the University of North Carolina, made their first New York appearance the eighteenth of November, when they presented a bill of four one-act plays at Earl Hall, at Columbia University.

In the nine years of this organization's existence, the players have made twenty-five tours, which have taken them as far north as Baltimore and Washington heretofore, and as far south as Savannah. This year they are including Philadelphia on their tour also.

The four plays of the current bill deal with life in North Carolina. They are: *The Scuffletown Outlaws,* by William Norment Cox; *Fixin's,* by Paul and Erma Green; *On Dixon's Porch,* by Ellen Lay Hodginson and Wilbur Stout; and *Lighted Candles,* by Margaret Bland.

A group of one-act plays presented by the Pontiac, Michigan, High School, under the direction of W. N. Viola, in December, included: *The Ghost Story,* by Booth Tarkington; *For Distinguished Service,* by Florence Clay Knox; *One Egg,* by Babett Hughes; *Jazz and Minuet,* by Ruth Giorloff; *Good Medicine,* by Jack Arnold and Edwin Burke; and *Lady Go On,* by W. N. Viola.

The finals of the New York State Contest in Rural Dramatics will take place February 15, in the University Theatre at Cornell University, when four groups from the district contests will compete for prizes offered by Samuel French and by *The American Agriculturists.* The contest is sponsored by the Department of Rural Sociology of the State College of Agriculture at Ithaca, through its field executive in Rural Dramatics, Mary Eva Duthie, and will be staged by the Cornell Dramatic Club. The judges will be Barrett H. Clark, Mrs. Edith Morgenthau, and A. M. Drummond. The district contests gained wide attention in their respective sections, and the final contest will be one of the features of the New York State Farmers' Week.

During the past summer session at the University of Montana three plays were produced under the direction of Alexander Dean, formerly of Northwestern University, with the coöperation of Aleyn Burtis of the Evanston North Shore Theatre Guild, and of Eugene Finch of the University of Montana. They were: *The Youngest,* by Philip Barry; *The Thirteenth Chair,* by Bayard Veiller; and a stylized production of an arranged version of Rostand's *Chantecler.*

PERSONALS

Professor James M O'Neill of the University of Michigan spoke before the National English Council meeting in Chicago late in December, on Speech Training for English Teachers. December 28th he spoke before the American Philological Association in Cincinnati on The Relation of Speech Education to Philology and Linguistics.

Mrs. Mabel V. Lacey has returned from Honolulu, where she has spent the last two years as superintendent of the Territorial School for the Blind, Deaf, and Speech Defectives, and is now in

charge of the work for the deaf and speech defectives at the Milwaukee State Teachers' College.

On December 13, Dr. Edward Lee Travis, Director of the Speech Clinic at the University of Iowa, delivered a lecture at the University of Michigan on The Place of Speech Correction in Modern Education.

Charles A. Fritz is working toward his Ph. D. degree in the School of Education at Washington Square College, New York University.

L. B. Goodrich, who has been engaged in graduate study at the University of Washington and at Columbia University has joined the Public Speaking faculty at Earlham College.

F. J. Byer, who was last year head of the Public Speaking Department at the Southern State Normal of South Dakota, has gone to Manchester College to head the new department of Speech at that institution. This work was formerly part of the work of the English Department.

Orville Crowder Miller has taken a year's leave of absence from the College of the Pacific, Stockton, California, and is studying and teaching at the University of Michigan.

Charles A. Dwyer, who has been in charge of debate work at New York University, is now in charge of the same work also at Washington Square College of the same institution. John S. Morris, formerly in charge of debating at the latter college, is now devoting most of his time to publicity work for the university.

Elmer Nyberg has taken charge of dramatic activities of the Washington Heights College of New York University, and is building up an elaborate organization there.

Succeeding Preston H. Scott at Purdue University is Professor Alan H. Monroe, formerly an instructor in Public Speaking there, who last year completed his work for the A. M. degree in the Northwestern University School of Speech. Professor Scott is now at the College of the City of Detroit. Elwood Murray and J. A. McGee are new instructors at Purdue this year.

Richard Woellhof is spending the year as student assistant in the Department of Speech at the University of Michigan.

Kai Jensen, formerly of the Department of Speech of the University of Washington, Lester Raines, formerly at the University of Minnesota, and J. Stanley Gray, former head of the